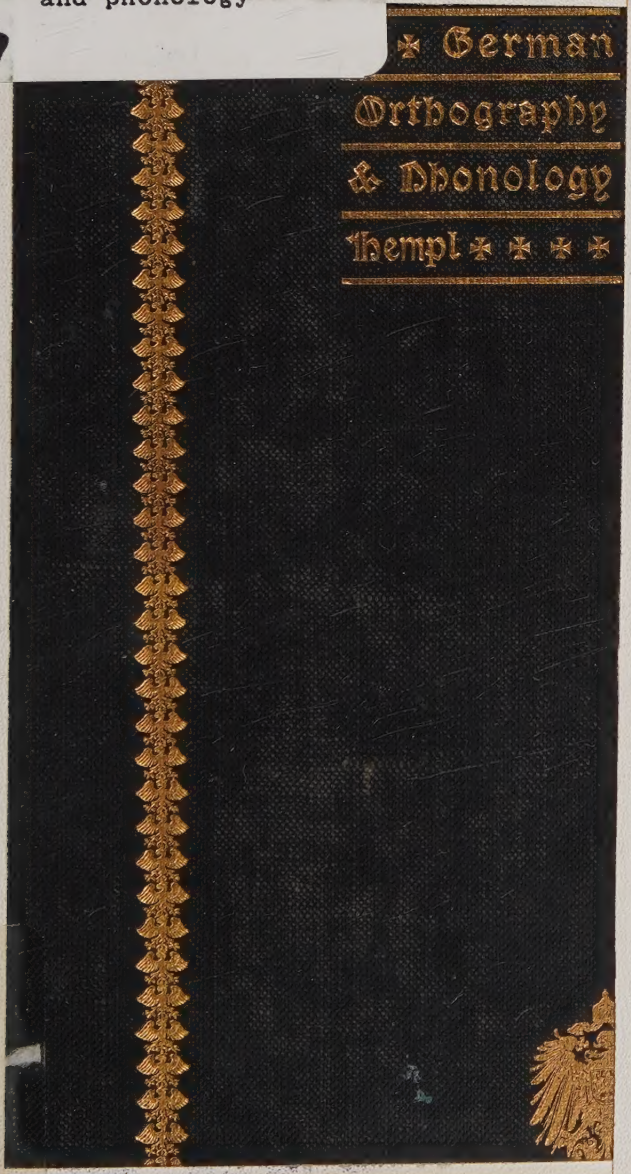
Hempl, George

German orthography
and phonology



[redacted] Teachers College [redacted]

[redacted]

Hempl, George

German orthography and phonology

[redacted]

9-6494

WITHDRAWN

German ortho

A Manual of German Orthography=and= Phonology with a Vuord=Liſt + + + + + By George Hempl profeſsor in the Vniverſity of Michigan + + Publiſhed by Ginn and Company in Boſton and London and by Karl J Trübner in Straſsburg + + + + Copyrighted and Entered at Stationers' Hall by George Hempl + + 1897

GERMAN

ORTHOGRAPHY AND PHONOLOGY

A TREATISE

WITH A WORD-LIST

BY

GEORGE HEMPL PHD

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH PHILOLOGY AND
GENERAL LINGUISTICS IN THE
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

PART FIRST—THE TREATISE

GINN & COMPANY

BOSTON · NEW YORK · CHICAGO · LONDON

German language - Orthography

Copyright, 1897
By GEORGE HEMPL

310.3

The Athenæum Press
GINN & COMPANY · PROPRIETORS · BOSTON · U.S.A.

To

my Teacher and Friend

Professor Eduard Sievers

in Leipzig

CONTENTS

PAGE

Illustrations xii
Preface xiii
Abbreviations xxiv
Key to Characters and Signs xxv

Book I

ORTHOGRAPHY

Chapter I. The Alphabet, pages 1–17.

Early Alphabets 1
Influence of the Gothic Style 3
Influence of the Renaissance and Rococo 5
Styles of German Type 6
Return to the Roman 10
German Script 11
Notes on the Alphabet 13
The Numerals 17

Chapter II. Spelling, pages 18–40.

The Nature of Spelling 18
Imperfect Systems 18
Reform Movements 19
Varieties of Spelling 21
The Basis of Spelling 28
The Choice between Different Letters Representing the Same or Similar Sounds 29
Signs of the Length of Vowels 34
Double Consonants 36
The Spelling of Adopted Words 38

Chapter III. The Division of Words, pages 41–42.

PAGE

Chapter IV. The Use of Capitals, pages 43–48.
Rules 44

Chapter V. Punctuation, pages 49–57.

Book ij

PHONOLOGY

Chapter I. Phonetics, pages 61–87.
The Organs of Speech 61
The Physical Basis of Speech 63
Breath 63
Voice 63
Resonance 64
Sonority 65
Analysis of Speech 65
Syllables 67
Sonoric and Dynamic Syllables 67
Syllabic Limits 69
Open and Closed Syllables 70
Long and Short Syllables 71
Stress-Groups 71
Classification of Sounds 71
Changes in Sounds 74
Phonetic Changes —
Changes Due to Accent and Time . . . 76
Unvoicing 76
Shortening and Lengthening 77
Narrowing and Widening 77
Rounding and Unrounding 77
Obscuring 78
Loss and Insertion of Sounds . . . 78
Gradation 79
Changes Due to Neighboring Sounds . . . 80
Assimilation 80
Mutation 81
Loss of Sounds 82
Excrescency 82
Changes in Quantity 82
Dissimilation 83
Metathesis 83

PAGE

Psychological Changes —
Analogy 84
Contamination 84
Popular Etymology 84
Speech-Mixture 85
Spontaneous Changes —
High-German Shift 86

Chapter II. GERMAN SPEECH-SOUNDS, pages 88–106.
The Vowels 88
Palate Positions 89
Tongue Positions 90
Narrowness 91
Rounding 91
Quantity 92
Stressed Vowels 92
Unstressed Vowels 97
Table of Vowels 99
The Diphthongs 99
The Consonants 100
Ways of Making Consonants —
With or without Stoppage 100
With or without Voice 101
Places where Consonants are Made — 102
Oral Consonants 102
Nasal Consonants 103
Glottal Consonants 103
Quantity and Double Consonants 104
Table of Consonants 106

Chapter III. PRONUNCIATION, pages 107–162.
A Standard of Pronunciation 107
Stage Pronunciation 110
The Best German 111
The Difference between German and English Pronunciation 112
Basis of Articulation 113
Quantity 114
Assimilation 115
Final Unvoicing 115
German Sounds Wanting in English 115
The Values of the Letters 116–158
Specimen with Phonetic Transcriptions 159

PAGE

Book III

ACCENT

Chapter I. The Nature of Accent, pages 165–166.

Chapter II. Pitch, pages 167–174.
- Character of Speech-Pitch 167
- Fixed Pitch 167
- Free Pitch 168
- Chief Keys 169
- Chief Forms of Intonation 169
  - Rising Intonation 169
  - Falling Intonation 171
  - Level Inflection 172
  - Compound Intonation 172
- Degrees of Intonation 174

Chapter III. Stress, 175–192.
- The Nature of Stress 175
  - Stress and Sonority 175
- The Forms of Stress 176
- Degrees of Stress 177
- The Basis of Stress-Placing 178
  - Tradition 179
  - State of Mind of the Speaker 180
    - Psychological Subject and Predicate . . . 180
    - Dominance of a Particular Idea 181
    - Currents of Thought 182
    - Thought and Word 183
  - Consideration of the Mind of the Listener . . . 184
  - Analogy 185
  - Rhythm and Certain Physical Conditions . . . 186
    - Prevailing Rhythms 186
    - Crescendo, Decrescendo, and Equal Stress . . 187
    - Stress-Groups 189
    - Stress Weakened 190
    - Stress Strengthened 191

PAGE

Chapter IV. SENTENCE-STRESS, pages 193–215.

General Principle 193
Equal Stress 195
Modifiers 196
Modifiers of Verbs 196
Series of Modifiers 197
Modifiers of Nouns and Adverbs 199
Modifier Following 199
Modifier Preceding 201
Anæmic Words 204
Preposition with Personal or Reflexive Pronoun . 206
Demonstrative and Other Pronouns . . . 208
Numerals 209
Undefined Psychological Subject and Predicate . . . 209
Transferrence of Stress 211
Displacement of Stress 212
Impulsive Stress 215

Chapter V. WORD-STRESS, pages 216–264.

I. Chief Stress

Simple Words —
Native Words 216
Adopted Words 218
Composition —
Native Words 227
General Principle 227
Derivatives from Compounds 229
Exceptions —
The Verbal Prefixes 230
Adjectives and Adverbs Compounded with un- 231
Other Compound Adjectives 235
Substantives 237
Geographical Names 239
Adopted Words 243
Conglomeration 244
Nouns and Verbs 245
Conglomerates 245
Derivatives and Compounds of Conglomerates . 250
Conglomerates as Compounds 251

PAGE

Pronouns 251
Particles 252
Conglomerates 253
Derivatives of Conglomerates 259

II. Secondary and Weak Stress

Native Words 259
Adopted Words 263

Book iiij

WORD-LIST AND INDEX

Pages 264–000

Addenda

Illustrations &c.

The Runic Futhark 1
Forms of the Latin Letters 2–3
Gothic Hand of 1450 4
Facsimile from the Gudrun Ms. 1517 6
Early Gothic Type 7
Half-Gothic Type 8–9
German Script 12
Old Forms of the Numerals 17
Specimens of Half-Gothic Type 21–26
The Organs of Speech 62
States of the Glottis 72
Diagrams of $\bar{\bar{u}}$ Positions 88
Diagrams of $\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{u}$ Positions 90
Table of Vowels 99
Table of Consonants 106

Preface.

THIS book aims to be a systematic and practical treatise on subjects pertaining to the writing, printing, & uttering of Modern German. These subjects have received various degrees of attention from scholars. In the case of those that had already been fully treated, for example, Spelling & Phonetics, it was my chief business to select and arrange the most important elements; on the other hand, in treating neglected subjects like Accent and the Development of German Letter-forms, I felt myself warranted in presenting more or less fully such contributions as I had to make. In this way each subject has received what appears to me to be its proportionate fullness of treatment.

While feeling conscious of the searching eye of the scientific critic, not only when bringing my own sheaves, but also when presenting the fruits of the labor of others, I have not allowed this consciousness to divert me from my chief purpose, namely, to make a book that would furnish what the serious learner of German needed, and that in such a form that he could easily find it — in a word, a practical book. In order to accomplish this, I have tried to subordinate what was not of chief importance, to arrange the matter in a logical order, to give cross-references

wherever they might be of aſsistance, & to incorporate with the Word-List, under one alphabetical arrangement, a complete index to subjects, words, and sounds. To facilitate reference, I have also presented the matter of pronunciation under the separate letters, in the usual alphabetical order — pages 116–158 — with references to the preceding sections in which the general subjects and the governing principles may be found systematically presented.

I would repeat that the book pretends to treat of Modern German only. I could not aſsume that the average user would have a knowledge of Old & Middle High German, and it would have seriously interfered with the aim of the book had I attempted to make up for a lack of such knowledge. I have had in mind the learner who starts from the printed page of a Modern-German text or the spoken words of Germans of to-day. Where, for example, spellings like Fahrt, Begier, Gott, *show him the length of the vowel, I have not supposed him to be likely to inquire how it happened to be as it is. To have made distinctions, such as that between the earlier and the later mutation, would as manifestly have been out of place. Neverthelefs, where a needed explanation demanded historical statements, I have given them to the degree that I thought they could be used. Moreover, in such a matter as the development of the forms of the letters, I have not hesitated to delve into the past; for what needed here to be said could be understood without historical philological learning.*

I trust it will be obvious that I am not the advocate of the unique value of the German pronunciation of any one province. I have aimed to enable the learner to choose in each particular that usage that is most general — which not only will offend the fewest ears, but which also stands the best chance of ultimately prevailing. Such a 'Durchschnittsdeutsch' is most likely to find actual realization in the capital of the nation, especially if that capital, like London & Berlin, stands on the border of the

Midland and that part of the country that has chief political and literary importance (§ 163). Wherein I may have erred I welcome correction; to be of value criticism must, however, be definite and specific, especially as regards locality. The neceſsity of brevity has occasionally forced me to use language that on the surface may appear too sweeping. The statement, for example, that a certain pronunciation is Northern and another Southern, must not be taken too strictly: it simply means that the difference in usage as to the matter under consideration is chiefly a geographical one and that the North favors the one form and the South the other.

It would be strange if my phonetic transcription found favor with all. It must be remembered, however, that phonetic transcription is much more difficult when one is trying to represent usage that is not uniform than when he has the comparatively simple task of representing the pronunciation of an individual or of a small community. I have tried to solve one or two of the difficulties by the use of Roman type, pages xxv. ft, xxvi. ft. I anticipate objection particularly to my use of aŋ, eŋ, &c., in adopted French words. In most of these words South Germans use true nasal vowels, and educated Germans all over the country do so in the leſs common ones, according to the degree of their familiarity with French. But the reason why South Germans do this, generally lies in the fact that they use such nasal vowels in speaking German itself, a feature of their German that is confeſsedly dialectic. The fact that in the Midland and the North nasal vowels occur in proportion to the degree of the speaker's knowledge of French, stamps them as foreign. I seriously doubt whether a foreign sound has ever been adopted by a people generally; in place of it is substituted the nearest native sound (§ 129 c). The transcription of Salon *with -ŏŋ stands on a pàr with the transcription of* Malheur *with -ō̆r. This -ŏŋ will, of course, in no way prevent anyone from giving the real French sound, he need but look upon ŋ as a sign of nasality.*

Of what defects the book may have I fancy I am more conscious than anyone else can be. In the field of Sentence-Stress I had, for the most part, new land to plow; there are still many spots that will be the better for more thorough cultivation. In the case of Pitch I particularly feel the insufficiency of my treatment. Aside from the evanescent and peculiarly difficult nature of the subject even when limited to the usage of an individual, I find that there is a tantalizing diversity of usage in the various parts of the German-speaking territory. There are districts in which my statement (§ 252 b) that the voice falls in commands does not hold at all, cf. also the quick rise in the dictatorial orders of most army officers and of some teachers; in some parts the rising pitch at the end of a command is employed with the implication "I'm going to see that you do what I say"; in still others it is regarded as suggestive of weakness or querulousness, especially when employed by a man.

A few things that might be sought in the book I have treated but briefly or not at all. The German script on page 12 is intended only to familiarize the learner with the forms that he might not understand. There was, therefore, no need of giving all the various approaches that the German writing is making to the Roman (§ 12). German copy-books can easily be obtained from any dealer in German books. — I have given few diagrams of the positions of the vocal organs, but I would urge the student to avail himself of those in Grandgent's 'German and English Sounds.' On the basis of his figures, I have attempted, in the table of vowels (§ 145), to indicate by the placing of the letters the positions assumed by the tongue during the sounding of the various vowels. Still, a slight concession is made to schematic requirements by placing* ü & ö *near the unrounded vowels* i & e, *with which they are associated acoustically. They would more accurately be placed at the left of* e & ä. *I found it difficult to*

* *Boston, Ginn & Co., 1892.*

resist the temptation to accept Professor Grandgent's generous suggestion that I avail myself unreservedly of the results of his unique work in this direction. — No attempt has been made to give a full bibliography; I have simply placed, at the head of each Book, the titles of those works that are most available or that were of greatest use to me; dissertations as well as articles in journals and programs are rarely cited. For fuller bibliographical details I would refer in general to Paul's 'Grundrifs der Germanischen Philologie', for phonetics to Sievers' 'Phonetik' and Breymann's 'Die Phonetische Literatur von 1876–1895.'

The matter of nomenclature I have regarded as deserving of the exercise of some conscience. I have retained 'Fraktur' *and* 'Schwabach' *because they designate peculiarly German things; but I see no reason for the slovenly use of* 'Ablaut' & 'Umlaut' *in English books. How unsuited they are to English usage may be judged from the medley of forms in which they may be heard in various class-rooms: æblǫt, āblaut, ablaut, & what not? The sooner they are thrown overboard after* 'Auslaut', 'Lautlehre', 'Lautverschiebung', *& the rest, the better. In treating of Syllabication I was forced to coin* 'Sonoric' *(§ 85) & to give new technical meaning to* 'Dynamic' *(§ 86). I have also made* 'Transferred Stress' *(§ 303),* 'Displaced Stress' *(§ 304), &* 'Impulsive Stress' *(§ 307) designate and distinguish three related but different things, & I have limited* 'Shift of Stress' *to cases affected by rhythm or other physical conditions (§ 278a &c.) After much deliberation and consultation with others, I coined* 'Vivic' *and put* 'Anæmic' *(§ 271, 291) to a new use. We have long wanted a term to designate the branching channels through which the breath may pass from the windpipe to the outer air; I have suggested* 'Delta' *(§ 71). I am also responsible for* 'Conglomeration' *and* 'Conglomerate' *(§ 333), for* 'Excrescency' *(§ 122), for* 'Half-Gothic' *(§ 6), & for the restriction of the meaning of* 'Gothic' *(§ 5). The use of* 'Italian Half-Gothic' *was but natural after my explanation*

of the origin of that characteristic type (§ 9). The neceſsity of illustrating the various styles of type, as well as my personal interest in such matters, will explain the somewhat unconventional typographical dreſs of this volume.

When studying the literature of the subject, I have always valued such information as writers furnished as to their personal equation, and I shall here add a few words as to mine. I was born in this country and English is my mother tongue; but I have, since my childhood, heard German spoken at home by my parents, who were natives of Dresden. Since coming to maturity, I have spent a year and a half at Berlin & Göttingen, a year at Jena & Dresden, and a year at Straſsburg & Tübingen. The observation of the various forms of German speech that thus fell upon my ear formed the foundation of the present volume. In my attempt to do justice to all, I have been materially aided by friends, who have given me valuable information and kindly read more or leſs of the proofs. But, as I could not avail myself of all their contributions, the responsibility for defects and errors is mine alone. I should mention in particular: For North Germany, Prof. Hoops of the University of Heidelberg, Prof. Voſs of the University of Wisconsin, Miſs Ida Guthe of Chicago, my cousin Miſs Marie Apel of Göttingen, & my colleagues Dr. Mensel and Mr. Tobias Diekhoff; For the Midland, Prof. Schilling of Harvard University, Dr. Pabst of the Gymnasium at Bremen, Mr. Reinhold Knauth of Madison, Wis., & my colleague Prof. Ziwet; For the South, Prof. Bopp of the Realschule at Tübingen, Mr. Phil. Huber, Principal of the German Department of the Saginaw WS. Schools, Mr. C. F. Weiser of the Detroit High School, Prof. Ernst Werner of the Realgymnasium at Karlsruhe, & my colleagues Mr. Otto Leſsing & Mr. Edwin Roedder. I am also under obligations to Prof. E. M. Brown of the University of Cincinnati for a critical revision of the English style of much of Book III.; to Prof. Lloyd and Mr. George Rebec of the philo-

sophical department of this university, who have kindly read and criticised chapters III. and IV. on Streſs; and particularly to Prof. Hench of the German department, with whom it has been my good fortune to be able to discuſs day by day the various phases of the work, and to whose scholarship and solid good sense the book owes not a little. But I should fail to expreſs a great personal obligation if I here omitted to thank publicly one whose aid has been ever present since my earliest childhood, my aunt, Miſs Camilla Häntzsche. This book in particular owes much to her accuracy and her intimate familiarity with German usage.

GEORGE HEMPL.

Ann Arbor, Michigan,
March 1897.

NOTE. — For the announcement of Part II., see the end of this volume.

Abbreviations

But few abbreviations have been used that need explanation. N = Note, R = Remark, ft = foot-note, @ indicates that further information as to a subject may be expected in the Addenda.

In matters of orthography the various official spellers are referred to by abbreviations easily understood. See p 18 ft, 20 N.

The following abbreviations are employed to designate dialects &c. and parts of Germany: —

HG = High German
LG = Low German
ME = Middle English
MHG = Middle High German
MnE = Modern English
MnG = Modern German
NHG = New High German
OE = Old English, or Anglo-Saxon
OHG = Old High German
E(G) = East Germany
EM(G) = the eastern Midland
M(G) = the Midland
NE(G) = North-East Germany
N(G) = North Germany
NW(G) = North-West Germany
SE(G) = South-East Germany, including Austria
S(G) = South Germany, including Austria and Switzerland
SW(G) = South-West Germany, including Switzerland
W(G) = West Germany
WM(G) = the western Midland

KEY TO CHARACTERS AND SIGNS

ā the long mid-back-wide vowel, like a in 'art', § 170, 1.
ă " short " " " " a " 'artistic', § 170, 2.
ă̄ " " " " usage varying between long and short, § 159 and § 243 *a*.
a̯ " " " " " nonsyllabic, § 146 N.
aį " diphthong spelled ei or ai, similar to i in 'mine'; *aę* would be a more exact spelling than *aį*, § 172.
aų " " " au, similar to ou in 'house'; more correctly *aǫ*, § 173.
ā̆ " long mid-front-wide vowel, like ei in 'their', § 176, 1. Cf also *ë*.
v " English short low-mixed vowel spelled u in 'but' and a in 'villa'.
ǣ " long low-front vowel, the sound of a in 'man' but long or drawled, as it usually is in America.
æ̆ " short " " " the sound of a in 'mankind' or in 'man' as that is pronounced by Englishmen.
b " voiced bilabial stop, b in 'boy', § 178.
b*
β " " " fricative, the w of Middle and South Germany; but β is more common, § 239.
β*
γ see below, above *z*.
c the voiceless top stop, k in 'sticking' as distinguished from the back stop in 'looker'. But this distinction is usually ignored, § 205 N 1.
d " voiced point stop, d in 'dog', § 184.
d*

---

* Consonants printed in Roman type are the same as the corresponding voiced consonants printed in Italics except that they are more or less unvoiced because next to a voiceless consonant, § 150 N 2, or are entirely unvoiced in some parts of the country, § 150 N 3, 223 N 3.

ð the voiced front fricative spelled th in 'this,' § 1.

℔ " sign for Pfennig, § 15.

ē " long mid-front-narrow vowel, similar to the first a in 'aerial', § 185, 1 & N 1.

ę̄ " short " " wide " like e in 'met', § 185, 2.

ę̆ " " " " " usage varying between long narrow and short wide, § 159.

ę̆ " " " narrow " usage varying (§ 159) between long and short.

e " short " " " " †.

ę̣ " " " " " nonsyllabic, being next to a more sonorous sound, § 146 N, 77, 85.

ę sometimes used to indicate an *e* that has arisen out of *a* by mutation, § 120, 3, 125 end.

ë the long mid-front-wide vowel, like ei in 'their'. In the Word-List *ë* is printed for lengthened MHG ë, for such MHG ę's and æ's as are still often pronounced wide, and also for ē before r. Many Germans pronounce it just or nearly like ā̈, others substitute ē for it, § 185 N 2.

ə̄ " English long mid-mixed " in 'bird'.

ə " short " " " spelled e in 'Gabe' (§ 186–187), nearly the same as *v* in 'villa'.

f " voiceless dentilabial fricative, f in 'fox', § 192.

g " voiced back stop, g in 'go', § 194, 196.

g*

h " voiceless glottal fricative, h in 'hand', § 154, 200.

ḥ " " top " ȸ in 'ich', often heard for *ḥj-* in 'human', § 180, 1 & N.

ī " long high-front-narrow vowel, e in 'me', § 201, 1 & R *a*.

ĭ " short " " wide " i in 'hit', § 201, 2 & R *a*.

---

* Cf p xxv ft.

† Vowels printed in Roman type are short but, like the corresponding long vowels, are narrow, § 144 N 2 *b*, § 135 end, also § 243 *a*.

ĭ the high-front vowel, usage varying between long narrow and short wide, § 159.

ĭ " " " narrow vowel, usage varying (§ 159) between long and short.

i " short high-front-narrow vowel †.

i̯ " " " " " nonsyllabic, being next to a more sonorous sound (§ 146 N, 77, 85), y in 'yet' as pronounced by many, § 201 N 3, 204 N *c*.

j " voiced top fricative, a more closely articulated form of i̯, y in 'ye' as pronounced by many, § 204 N *a*.

ǰ " " " stop, g in 'give' as distinguished from the back stop in 'go'. But this distinction is usually ignored, § 194 N.

k " voiceless back ", k in 'looker', § 205 & N 1.

l " voiced side sonorous consonant, l in 'let', § 206.

l*

·*l* " " " " " syllabic because not next to a more sonorous sound, § 77, 85, p 128 N 5.

m " " bilabial nasal, m in 'me', § 207.

m*

·*m* " " " " syllabic because not next to a more sonorous sound, § 77, 85, p 128 N 5.

ɯ see below w.

n the voiced point " n in 'no', § 208.

n*

·*n* " " " " syllabic because not next to a more sonorous sound, § 77, 85, p 128 N 5.

ŋ " " top " , ng in 'singing', § 209 R.

η " " back " , ng in 'sung', § 209 & R.

η*

·*η* " " " " syllabic because not next to a more sonorous sound, § 77, 85, p 128 N 5.

---

* Cf p xxv ft.

† Cf p xxvi ft.

$\bar{o}$ the long mid-back-narrow-rounded vowel, like o in 'note', but cf § 210, 1 N.

$\breve{o}$ " short " " wide " " o in the New England dialect pronunciation of 'stone' &c, § 210, 2 N 3.

o " " " " " usage varying between long narrow and short wide, § 159.

$\breve{\bar{o}}$ " " " narrow " " usage varying (§ 159) between long and short.

$o̯$ " short " " " " nonsyllabic because next to a more sonorous sound, § 146 N, 77, 85.

$\bar{o}$ " long low-back-narrow-rounded vowel in 'law'.

$\breve{o}$ " short " " " " " " 'what', but not the $\bar{a}$ that many Americans substitute for $\breve{o}$.

$o\breve{i}$ " diphthong spelled eu, äu, &c, similar to oy in 'boy': more correctly $o\breve{o}$, $o\ddot{\breve{u}}$, $o\ddot{\breve{u}}$, or $o\breve{o}$ &c, § 177.

$\bar{\ddot{o}}$ " long mid-front-narrow-rounded vowel, often substituted for $\bar{e}$ in holding such a word as 'day' in singing, and in long calls to animals, § 216.

$\breve{\ddot{o}}$ " short " " wide " " § 216, 2.

ö " " " " narrow " " †.

$\ddot{o}̯$ " " " " " " nonsyllabic because next to a more sonorous sound, § 146 N, 77, 85, 177.

ϕ " voiceless bilabial fricative, the sound made in blowing, § 239 end.

p the voiceless bilabial stop, p in 'happy', § 217.

$þ$ " " front fricative, spelled th in 'thick', § 1.

r " voiced point trill, § 221, 1, but cf § 368.

r*

$\cdot r$ " " " " syllabic because not next to a more sonorous sound, § 77, 85, p 128 N 5, cf also § 368.

$ʻ$ " " glottal " § 221, 3.

---

* Cf p xxv ft.

† Cf p xxvi ft.

·ɹ the voiced glottal trill syllabic because not next to a more sonorous sound, § 77, 85, p 128 N 5.

ɐ " " uvular " or fricative, § 221, 2.

ɐ*

·ɐ " " " " " " syllabic because not next to a more sonorous sound, § 77, 85, p 128 N 5.

ʔ § 15, 2.

s the voiceless front fricative, s in 'sick', § 222.

ś " " " " heard in Polish and in neighboring German dialects, § 181 R end and Addenda.

ş " " " " heard in parts of Middle Germany as a substitute for ń, § 180, 1 R 1.

ʃ " " " " sh in 'shoe', § 229.

t " " point stop, t in 'sitting', § 231.

ƭ " " nasal " the second half of t in 'Whitney', § 153, 2.

ʃ " " lateral " the second half of t in 'little', p 67 top.

þ see above, under ƥ.

ū the long high-back-narrow-rounded vowel (§ 233), similar to oo in 'fool'.

ŭ " short " " wide " " (§ 233), similar to u in 'full'.

ŭ̄ " " " " " usage varying between long narrow and short wide, § 159.

ŭ " " " narrow " " usage varying (§ 159) between long and short.

u " short " " " " " †.

ɰ " " " " " " nonsyllabic because next to a more sonorous sound (§ 146 N, 77, 85), a less closely articulated form of *w*.

uɨ " diphthong heard in a few German exclamations, § 235.

---

* Cf p xxv ft.

† Cf p xxvi ft.

ǖ the long high-front-narrow-rounded vowel (§ 237), often substituted for ī in holding such a word as 'me' in singing, and in long calls to animals.

ü̆ " short " " wide " " (§ 237, 2), sometimes substituted for ĭ in the call 'chick, chick, chick'.

ü " " " " narrow " " †.

ü̯ " " " " " " nonsyllabic because next to a more sonorous sound, § 146 N, 77, 85, 177.

v " voiced dentilabial fricative, v in 'veal', § 238, 2, 239.

v*

w " " bilabial-back " , w in 'way', a more closely articulated form of u̯, § 77.

w*

ʍ " voiceless " " " , used by many speakers for hw- in 'what' &c.

ɸ see above, under o.

χ the voiceless back " , ch in 'ach', § 180, 2 & N 1, 198, 2.

γ " voiced " " , g in 'Tage' as pronounced in most parts of NG, § 198, 1.

γ*

z " " front " spelled z in 'zeal', § 223.

z* cf also § 223 & N 3.

ʒ the voiced front fricative spelled s in 'pleasure', § 199 d, 204 N 2.

3* cf also § 204 N 2.

ˋ sign for slowly falling intonation, § 250.

ˋ " " gradual stress, § 262.

ˊ " " slowly rising intonation, § 250.

ˊ " " abrupt stress (when contrasted with gradual stress), § 262.

ˈ " " chief stress, § 263.

ˈ " " secondary stress when three signs are needed, § 263.

ˌ " " weak stress when three signs are needed; for secondary stress when only two are needed, § 263.

ˌ over 1, § 21.

---

* Cf p xxv ft.

† Cf p xxvi ft.

ˈ over *s*, cf *ś*.
ˮ " vowels, § 22.
/ a sign to separate the vowels of a gradation series, § 117–8.
/ the old form of the comma, § 57, 30.
/ " " " " " semicolon, § 58.
; " semicolon, § 58.
, " comma, § 57.
’ " apostrophe, § 65.
ʾ sign for the glottal stop, § 154, 2.
‹ ›
„ “ } quotation marks, § 66.
„ ”
ˌ sign for compound stress, § 261.
» «
» « } quotation marks, § 66.
» «
> sign meaning ‘changed into’ (or ‘changing into’), ‘became’, ‘to’, ‘earlier form of’, ‘later’. } These signs always point in the direction of the change, toward the younger form.
< " " ‘derived from’, ‘later form of’, ‘formerly’.
◁ sign for swelling
▷ " " subsiding } stress, § 260.
□ " " level
= " " ‘equals’, ‘like’, ‘meaning’.
— the dash, § 62.
▬ sign for chief
▬ " " secondary } sentence stress, § 263.
▬ " " weak
‾ " " level intonation, § 250.
¯ " " length of vowel, § 137.
¯ substitute for m, n, § 22.
- the hyphen, § 64.
⌞ sign for quickly falling
⌜ " " " rising } intonation, § 250.
^ " " rising + falling
v " " falling + rising } intonation, § 254, 256.
˜ sign for nasality, § 133, 207 N & R.
◡ over written u, § 22.
˘ sign for shortness of vowel, § 137.
˘ " " a syllable with very weak stress, § 263.

ˆ sign that the sound written above is nonsyllabic, § 146 N, 77, 85.
˘ " of vacillation of usage as to quantity, § 159.
˚ " for a syllable lacking stress, § 263.
ů over printed u, § 22.
. the period, § 56.
· " turned period, p 128 N 5.
.:⁝ measures of degrees of sonority, § 85.
¨ over vowels, § 22, 185 N 2 end.
: the colon, § 59.
= " hyphen, § 64.
? " question mark, § 60.
ɾ " " " turned, see above, below j.
ſ see above, below *s*.
§ the sign of a section in a book.
! " exclamation point, § 61.
† " dagger, § 68. In the Word-List it designates obsolete forms.
+ " sign for 'plus', 'combined with'.
* " asterisk, § 67.
*) " sign of a footnote, § 63 R.
)i " " " *i*-mutation, § 120.
( ) } marks of parenthesis, § 63.
[ ] }

Book j

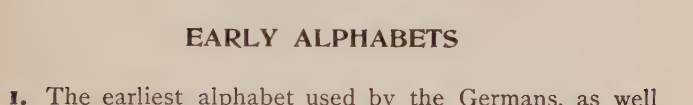
ORTHOGRAPHY

Chapter j

THE ALPHABET

EARLY ALPHABETS

1. The earliest alphabet used by the Germans, as well as by their kinsmen, the English and the Scandinavians, was the **Runic Futhark**, of which the following are characteristic early forms with their values: —



Note. It is now usual to adopt Wimmer's derivation of the runic futhark from the Latin alphabet. This, however, does not seem to be so certainly proved as has been supposed. Most of the runes may as readily be derived from other alphabets, and some of them, that cannot be derived from the Latin alphabet without considerable assumption

---

Henning: *Die deutschen Runendenkmäler*, 1889. Pauli: *Altitalische Forschungen*, 1885–91. Sievers: *Runen und Runeninschriften*, in Paul's Grundriss I., 1889. Wimmer: *Runeskriftens Oprindelse og Udvikling i Norden*, 1874; improved German edition, translated by Holthausen, 1887.

Arndt: *Lateinische Schrift*, in Paul's Grundriss I. 1889; and *Schrifttafeln zur Erlernung der lateinischen Palaeographie*, 1887–8. Bechstein: *Die deutsche Druckschrift*, 1884. Brockhaus's *Konversationslexikon*. DeVinne, *Historic Printing Types*, 1886. Müller: *Quellenschriften*, 1882. Thompson: *Handbook of Greek and Latin Palæography*, 1893. Wattenbach: *Das Schriftwesen im Mittelalter*, 2d ed., 1875; and *Anleitung zur lateinischen Palæographie*, 4th ed., 1886. *Die Buchschriften des Mittelalters*, Vienna, 1852.

and manipulation, find exact counterparts elsewhere, for example, ᛞ and the turned *l* *u* ᚴ ᚢ in the Sabellic and Venetic alphabets. With the increase of our knowledge of early alphabets, it may yet turn out that the runes and certain North-Italic alphabets have a common origin, or that the runes are from an alphabet akin to the Sabellic and Venetic but modified by the influence of the Latin.

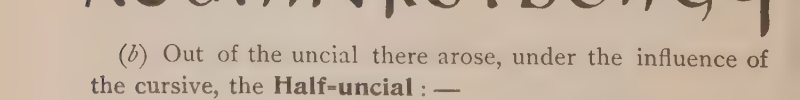
The prevalence of sharp angles rather than curves, and the avoidance of horizontal lines, are due to the material upon which the letters were at one time cut and to the instrument used; the Venetic, and to a less extent other, letters have the same characteristic. Some of the variant forms that in time arose were later employed to differentiate sounds not exactly alike (ᚢ and ᚹ = *u* and *w*, cf. § 16; ᛋ and ᚷ = *j* and *γ*, §§ 197, 1, 198, 1, &c.). The frequent combination ᛏ ᚷ usually blended in a ligature: ᛟ, ᛝ, or something similar; and this was incorporated as a letter when the futhark was formulated into three rows of eight letters each.

2. Later, with the introduction of Christianity and of Latin learning into Germany, the Latin alphabet was introduced. It consisted originally of **Capitals** only, which usually had about this form: —

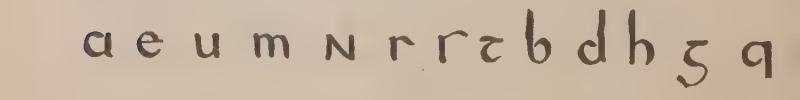
A E V M N R S T B D H C Q &c.

But in the process of time the alphabet came to have other forms, according as writing material varied or writing was for different purposes.

3. (*a*) By 300 A. D., the **Uncial** letters had developed, with strokes rounded and simplified: —



(*b*) Out of the uncial there arose, under the influence of the cursive, the **Half-uncial**: —

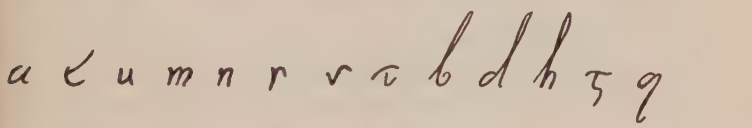


But the old capitals and the uncials continued to be used as initials and in headings.

(*c*) Out of the half-uncial and the cursive (§ 4) arose the **Minuscule**, which took on different and more or less corrupt forms in Italy, Spain, and France. With the revival of learning that took place in the time of Charles the Great, there was a reform in the writing, due mostly to the copying of the handsome Roman half-uncial of earlier times. The following

shows the chief forms of this Carlovingian minuscule, already a close approach to our lower-case letters, § 7, 1.

4. Side by side with the more formal hand of the books, there was developed in rapid writing the **Cursive** style, corresponding to the modern script and used mostly in letters and legal documents. Of this there were many styles; a Ravenna deed of 572 A. D. shows the following forms: —

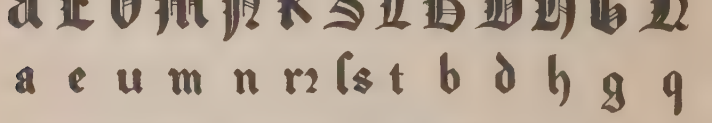


The influence of the cursive is seen in the half-uncial and more particularly in the minuscule. Upon a later form of the Italian hand is based the **Script** in vogue in Romance countries and with us.

INFLUENCE OF THE GOTHIC STYLE

5. During the Middle Ages, numerous book, charter, and script hands developed and influenced one another. In ordinary writing, moderate speed and a stiff dull pen favored the use of connecting loops and the development of a round

hand of nearly uniform thickness. In books, the need of great legibility cultivated clear and distinct letters; one means of accomplishing this was the use of the stub pen, which, however, not only favored the development of a black letter but also the displacement of curves by corners more or less sharp. Such a pen, when lifted on the completion of a stroke, was apt to make a ceriph, which later developed into the characteristic triangular base: ɨ. Most of the letters already contained a perpendicular bar; the extension of this characteristic to such of the remaining letters as admitted of it, brought the written characters into harmony with the principles of the Gothic architecture, which had come in during the 12th and 13th centuries. It had for some time been customary to add to capitals extra perpendicular strokes in red or some other color: the imitation of these in black led to an increase in the number of perpendicular columns and produced a sort of lace work that had an effect similar to that produced by the system of columns standing out from the walls of a Gothic cathedral. The Gothic principle was most carefully carried out in books that were intended for use in divine service — missals, psalters, bibles, etc. — and in inscriptions on tombs and the like in and about the churches. The following is an example of the strict Gothic* of religious manuscript books of about 1450: —



This style attained perfection in the types cut for the first bible, § 8.

*) The term 'Gothic' is often used to include all forms of black letter, cf. § 9 ft. In our printing offices the word is used of a plain boldface letter: **ABCabc.**

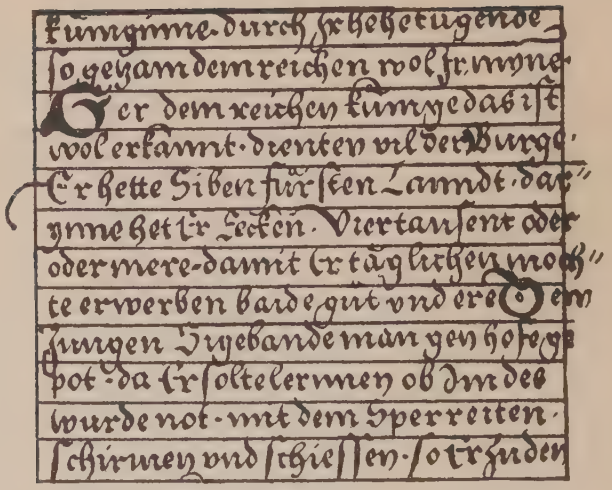
6. But strict Gothic was not the only or even the predominating style in books. It was more rigid and difficult than was necessary for legibility and prohibited the indulgence of the temptation to let the pen make graceful curves and tags. Those ordinary book hands that are more unconstrained but still possess some of the characteristics of Gothic may be grouped as **Half-Gothic** and can be studied from the types cast in imitation of them, see § 9.

INFLUENCE OF THE RENAISSANCE AND THE ROCOCO

7. 1) Italian scribes had maintained a graceful round minuscule and, though this showed itself capable of passing into a handsome half-Gothic (§ 9, 1), its earlier form was revived when the Renaissance made it necessary to produce many copies of the earlier manuscripts of the classics. This comparatively light minuscule hand, with the old Roman letters (§ 2) as capitals, came to be associated with classical learning and to be called **Roman**, in German Lateiniſch or Antiqua. Handsome forms of this are 'French Old-Style' (cf. the upper half of the title-page of this book) and, in boldface, 'De Vinne' (cf. the heading of this paragraph).

Remark. It may be stated here that the letters called **Italics** were cast early in the 16th century in imitation of the more cursive (§ 4) hand in vogue in the Roman chancery.

2) Even before the Gothic letter had attained its complete development, the new artistic spirit had begun its work. While, as we shall see (§ 10, 11), the Renaissance did not succeed in Germany in substituting the Roman letter for black letter, it had an influence upon the form of half-Gothic. To this influence the capitals were most susceptible: they gave up many of the sharp angles they had received from the Gothic, while much was made of the curves they had retained; and this tendency became still more pronounced



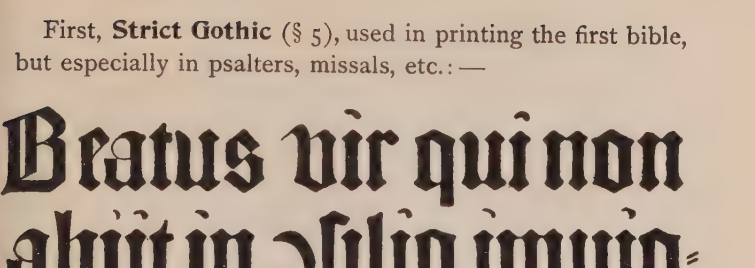
Facsimile from Gudrun Ms., 1517.

during the rococo period. Except for the addition of various crooks and curls, but few of the small letters (for example, final s, which was originally a small capital **s** written above the vowel of certain Latin endings) could be modified in this direction; in time the attempt was given up and the Gothic principle was allowed to prevail in the small letters wherever it could. Hence arises an unpleasant lack of harmony between the style of the German capitals, with their rich curves and capricious ornamentation, and that of the small letters, with their Gothic points and slim perpendicular columns. See § 9, 4*b* & N 2.

STYLES OF GERMAN TYPE

8. The development of the most usual styles of German type was as follows.

First, **Strict Gothic** (§ 5), used in printing the first bible, but especially in psalters, missals, etc.: —



This is well imitated in the 'Altdeutsch' of modern German foundries, cf. the fore-title of this book.

9. Second, **Half-Gothic**, characterized by the lack of a triangular base (§ 5) to the first columns of **m, n**, etc. (but this was restored in Fraktur, § 7, 2 end). Of the many forms, it is well to specify: —

1) **Italian**, an imitation of the handsome black form that the Italian minuscule had assumed by the end of the 14th century (§ 7). In the hands of the printers it soon developed a characteristic artistic form, cf. capital a, m, p, t, and small v, w, h, in § 30, 4, also the second line in § 30, 5.

Note. This black letter was used as a text letter chiefly in Latin books; it was also employed in headings to Roman and other texts. A small size (§ 30, 4) often had Roman type mixed with it. This character is imitated fairly well in the now popular 'Tudor Black' of our printing offices, cf. the running titles of this book.

2) **Bastard**, a book hand influenced by the cursive (from which it acquired the loops in b, l, h, &c.) and showing a tendency to indulge in curves that are more or less graceful.

Note 1. A form of this was the most usual early German type, cf. § 30, 3, and the capitals in § 30, 8.

Note 2. The bastard of the Low Lands has characteristic fat ſ and ſ; that taken to England by Caxton and used in the first books

Anno dñi . 1488 . die 4 . 6 . July,
quo die festum Sancte Mathie recolit .

printed in England is further characterized by the peculiar loops on capital A, M, R, etc. It is well imitated and slightly improved in the modern "Caxton Black", cf. the dedication of this book.

3) (*a*) **Schwabach**, a development of the half-Gothic into more artistic, harmonious forms, § 6. For examples see § 30, 6 and the small letters in 8. Forms current about 1650 : —

A B C D E F G H I K L M N O P
Q R S T U V W X Y Z ß ß

(*b*) **Recent Schwabach** emphasizes those elements that were derived from the Gothic, particularly the use of straight bars. There is thus a greater harmony between the Schwabach capitals and small letters than between the corresponding fraktur characters, § 7, 2 end.

A or Ä B C D E F G H I K L M N O P
Q R S T U V W X Y or Y Z, Ä Ö Ü;
a b c d e f g h i j k or k l m n o p q r s
t u v w x y or y z or z, ä ö ü.

4) (*a*) **Fraktur**,* a modification of the half-Gothic in another direction, § 7, 2. The small letters were made slimmer and the upright strokes of many (for ex., t, i, j, u, a) were bent; points were sharpened and curves extended; uniformly thick straight lines were displaced by curves (e, y) tapering at the ends; flourishes were added to capitals and letters like

* The term "Fraktur" (like "Gothic," § 6 ft) is frequently used in a more extended sense, including all forms of black letter.

ȟ, ȳ, ȝ; and the three-pointed bases of the strict Gothic were often restored to some of the small letters. See § 30, 2, 5.

Note 1. These characteristics are in harmony with the artistic taste of the time and may be seen to some extent in the hand shown in § 7, 2. The most beautiful and probably the earliest illustration of this style in type is to be found in the letters cut for the *Theuerdank* (1517), after the hand in vogue at the imperial chancery, § 30, 2.

Note 2. Fraktur was a fancy type and was sometimes used for headings for Schwabach texts, but this relation was soon inverted, *b*N 1.

(*b*) **Modern Fraktur**, a further development, favoring full, rich curves in the capitals but rejecting extra flourishes and restoring the straight lines of the strict Gothic to some of the small letters, § 7, 2 end. Capitals of about 1650 : —

𝔄 𝔅 ℭ 𝔇 𝔈 𝔉 𝔊 ℌ ℑ 𝔎 𝔏 𝔐 𝔑 𝔒 𝔓
𝔔 ℜ 𝔖 𝔗 𝔘 𝔙 𝔚 𝔛 𝔜 ℨ

For examples of early modern Fraktur see § 30, 10, 11, 12. The capitals have at present a stiffer, more uniform, style : —

𝔄 𝔅 ℭ 𝔇 𝔈 𝔉 𝔊 ℌ ℑ 𝔎 𝔏 𝔐 𝔑 𝔒 𝔓 𝔔 ℜ
𝔖 𝔗 𝔘 𝔙 𝔚 𝔛 𝔜 ℨ, Ä Ö Ü;

𝔞 𝔟 𝔠 𝔡 𝔢 𝔣 𝔤 𝔥 𝔦 𝔧 𝔨 𝔩 𝔪 𝔫 𝔬 𝔭 𝔮 𝔯 𝔰 𝔰 𝔱 𝔲 𝔳
𝔴 𝔵 𝔶 𝔷, ä ö ü, ȟ=ch, ƈ=ck, ß=ſz, ʒ=tz, § 22 end.

Note 1. Fraktur is the most common text letter and is what is usually meant by "German Text." Gothic and Schwabach are still more or less black, or bold-face, and are used for headings and ornament; but Schwabach is now again (N 2 above) occasionally used as a text letter. There are, of course, many antique as well as modern variations and mixtures of these styles.

Note 2. For the contrast between the capitals and the small letters, see § 7, 2 end, also § 9, 3 *b*. The only small letters that lack the Gothic characteristics are ſ and ȝ. Naturally the form of **z** has always made it an obstacle in the way of the Gothic tendency, and ſ is (§ 7, 2) a capital adopted into the lower-case series. On the other hand, the only capital letters that possess the Gothic characteristics are 𝔘 and its derivative Ü, and we shall see that 𝔘 is really a lower-case letter adopted into the capital series, § 16, 2.

RETURN TO THE ROMAN

10. In Germany the Renaissance found the art of printing established, and the early printers had, as has been said, modeled their types after the style in vogue throughout Europe in written books, namely the Gothic, either in its strict or its more current form. Hence the spirit of the Renaissance could there do little more than introduce the Roman letters into Latin books, and in German books remodel to some extent the established style. Into other countries the new learning and the new art entered more nearly together and the influence of the Humanists eventually succeeded in supplanting the Gothic character (except for purposes of ornament) with the classical one.

11. Germany, too, has not lacked advocates of a return to the simpler and clearer letter. Leibnitz and Jakob Grimm had more or less of a following, and the latter's teaching encouraged the practice of printing philological and other scientific books in the Roman character. It is taught in all the schools ; and even poetry and books of general interest, very rarely newspapers, are printed in it. But most books and periodicals that appeal to a popular audience are still issued in what has now long been termed German text, § 9, 4*b* N. Being at present employed almost only in Germany,* it has come to be surrounded with a sort of national halo in that country, and this operates as a check to its ultimate replacement by the Roman character. The Roman is more distinct and less trying to the eyes than Fraktur, but it is hardly as distinct as Schwabach. That it is as handsome as the various German texts, can hardly be successfully maintained (Grimm to the contrary not with-

* The Scandinavian countries long got their type from German foundries, and they still use German text to a limited extent. Switzerland has come out fair and square for the Roman letter and even employs it in printing its "Rechtschreibebüchlein."

standing, § 30, 17), esp. if the disparity between the capitals and the small letters (§ 8 end) be reduced by restricting the use of the former (§ 52) as in English.

Mignon.

Kennſt du das land, wo die zitronen blühn,
Im dunkeln laub die goldorangen glühn,
Ein ſanfter wind vom blauen himmel weht,
Die myrte ſtill und hoch der lorbeer ſteht,
Kennſt du es wohl? Dahin, dahin
Möcht' ich mit dir, o mein geliebter, ziehn!

Mignon.

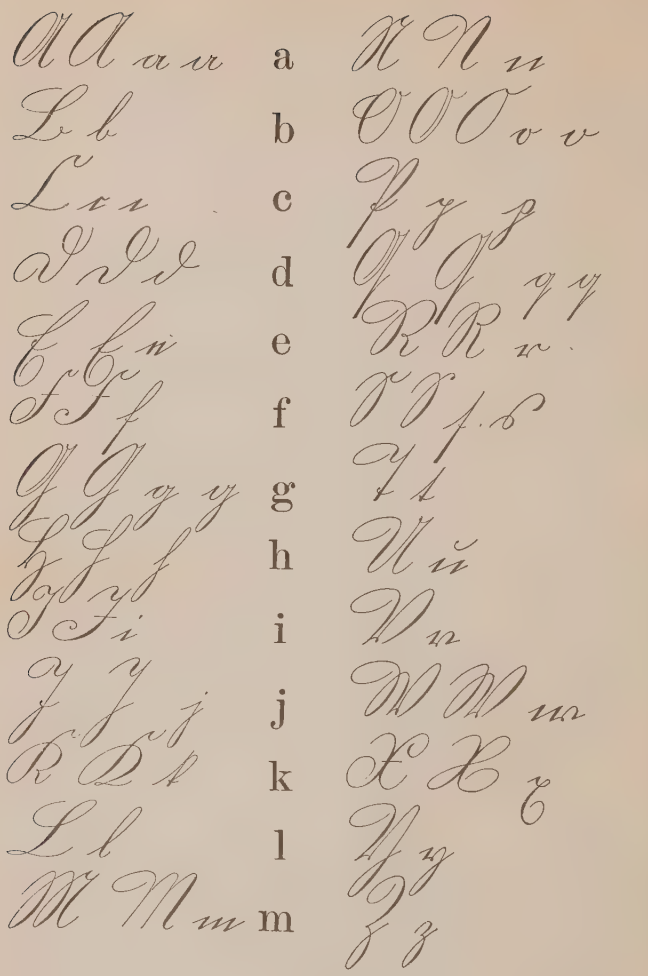
Kennst du das land, wo die zitronen blühn,
Im dunkeln laub die goldorangen glühn,
Ein sanfter wind vom blauen himmel weht,
Die myrte still und hoch der lorbeer steht,
Kennst du es wohl? Dahin, dahin
Möcht' ich mit dir, o mein geliebter, ziehn!

Mignon.

Kennſt du das land, wo die zitronen blühn,
Im dunkeln laub die goldorangen glühn,
Ein ſanfter wind vom blauen himmel weht,
Die myrte ſtill und hoch der lorbeer ſteht,
Kennſt du es wohl? Dahin, dahin
Möcht' ich mit dir, o mein geliebter, ziehn!

GERMAN SCRIPT

12. German script, a descendant of a cursive half-Gothic (§ 7), has likewise been subjected to the dictates of fashion.


a
b
c
d
e
f
g
h
i
j
k
l
m
n
o
p
q
r
s
t
u
v
w
x
y
z

The capitals are rich in curves and quirks, as are also some of the smaller letters. These, however, in their straight lines and acute angles, sacrifice perspicuity to ease of writing. Some of the letters have a striking resemblance to the ancient cursive, § 4. A tendency towards simplification and approach to the Roman script in vogue in other countries (§ 4 N) is making some headway; the simpler form of Ꝟ is now the usual one, and the simpler forms of 𝔐 and 𝔑 are very common. The ligatures for ſt and ß with stunted ſ are no longer in general use.

13. Moreover, all German children learn Roman script as they learn Roman print; and it is customary to use it in writing the address on an envelope, and more or less customary to employ it in certain abbreviations (for ex., Dr., but not Prof., § 30, 21) and proper names, especially unusual ones.* Some have entirely abandoned German script; but even these employ a style that we should regard as old-fashioned, and make some of the letters, for ex., ſ and t, more like the German script than like that current among us, while 𝔗 and 𝔉 are never made, as they often are by us, in such a way that they might be mistaken for German 𝔍.

NOTES ON THE ALPHABET

14. The names of the letters are: a *ā*, b *bē*, c *tsē*, d *dē*, e *ē*, f *ĕf*, g *gē*, h *hā*, i *ī*, j *jŏt*, k *kā*, l *ĕl*, m *ĕm*, n *ĕn*, o *ō*, p *pē*, q *kū*, r *ĕr*, ſ *ĕs*, t *tē*, u *ū*, v *fau*, w *vē*, x *ĭks*, y *ŭp'sĭlŏn'* (or *ŭpsī'lŏn*),

* At one time foreign words were printed in Roman, as we sometimes print them in Italics: Gedruckt zu St. Malo, eine Familie von, &c.; and this was carried to the absurd extreme of dividing a word (sometimes incorrectly) into its foreign and native elements: Curieuſen, Vaganten, § 30, 12.

ʒ *tsĕt*; ä *ā*, ö *ō*, ü *ū* ; or 'mutated *ā* ' &c.; ch *ĥē*, sch *ſē*, ß *sē*. For the other digraphs, see § 171 &c.

The nearest equivalent in English spellings would be: a *ah*, b *bay*, c *tsay*, d *day*, e *ay* in *pay*, f *ĕf*, g *gay*, h *hah*, i *ee*, j *yŭt*, k *kah*, l *ĕl*, m *ĕm*, n *ĕn*, o *oh*, p *pay*, q *koo*, r *ĕr* in *error*, ſ *ĕs*, t *tay*, u *oo*, v *fou* in *found*, w *vay*, x *tks*, y *ip'silŭn*, ʒ *tsĕt*.

15. 1) When Roman letters are used, the official spellers require that ſ be represented by s (though ſ is also in use), s by s (§ 7, 2), ſſ by ss, ß by ſs or by ß or ß (but ss is also used, sz rarely).

2) ℔ or ℌ. = d. (*denarius*), that is, Pfennig. ꝛc. = &c., in which ꝛ, like &, was a form of *et* 'and', resembling the second form of r, which arose after o (see last word in § 30, 6).

16. 1) The old capital **V**, representing both vowel and consonant, assumed in the uncial the form **U** (§ 3) and both **V** and **U** were employed as initials in connection with half-uncials and minuscules, § 3 *b* end. As initial and capital, the various forms of **V** ultimately displaced the various forms of **U** (see **vnd, von, vnſerer,** § 30, 4), but medially and finally the minuscule **u** remained (see burger, haußuater; dauon, § 30, 8, 2); except that **v** was sometimes preferred, next **u**, **n**, and **m**. As the consonant was more commonly initial, **v** came to be associated with it and to be written for it even medially; in the 17th century, the differentiation (v or v consonant, **u** or u vowel) became complete.

Remark. Before u and ü an ſ was used rather than v, § 37, 2.

2) When a capital u was needed, at first a large lower-case u was made to do duty in the printing offices (see § 9, 3*a*, 4*b*, 30, 10, 11, 12); later a capital was provided by simply making u larger, hence its strict Gothic form, in distinction to that of the other capitals, § 7, 2 end.

17. **W**, 𝔚, from **VV uu** 𝔙u (see example in § 9, 1), arose in the Middle Ages and was at first called '*ū'-ū'*' or '**doppel=u**' (§ 30, 9*c*), as it still is in English. As it was generally initial, it retained the form that was used initially, that is, the one like **v** rather than **u**. Occasionally it was used for final u, especially in diphthongs (see **ſpw, bewmōdts,** § 30, 4 and § 30, 9).

18. Even in the earliest days **ı** (= **i**) was often extended below the line, especially next **l** and **ı**, for ex., in numerals, § 30, 3 end (as is still done in prescriptions); but this was mostly in Latin words, cf. **Julij**, § 9, 2 N; later also in **frej, ſej,** &c. § 30, 10. For the dot of this **j**, or "long **i**," see § 21.

19. **I** or 𝔍, served as a capital or initial for the vowel *i* as well as for the corresponding consonant (now represented by j). This capital letter was used not only at the beginning of a paragraph, but also elsewhere initially: before vowels (where it was a consonant: **ıar** and **Jar**, § 30, 4) and before letters resembling i, especially n, u, r. (so **In,** § 30, 1; by some only for *ī*); and this 𝔍 soon degenerated into 𝔍𝔍 (see 𝔍r, 𝔍m, p 6) and was represented in the printing offices (§ 30, 7 end) by the j explained above (see **jor** § 30, 3, **joch** § 30, 5; **jhm** § 30, 9*b*, **jrem, jm, jr,** § 30, 6). As the consonant is rare medially, and twice as frequent as the vowel initially, the form j in time became associated with the consonant and was written for it medially (see **majeſtet** &c. § 30, 9) as well as initially, and later i was written in **ihr, ihm,** &c., which had long retained j (see § 30, 10, beginning and end). The differentiation is not complete; for there is no separate form in the capital German text (some dictionaries use a crossed 𝔍 for the consonant; see also § 30, 10), while in script and in the Roman letters used in inscriptions and on sign-boards, the capitals are often confounded, **J** being still preserved as an initial, for ex., in **JSAAC** as well as in **JOHANN.**

20. The final ij explained in § 18 was confused with the dotted ỵ of Greek and Latin words, and this "double i" (see § 30, 1) came to be used for i, especially finally and in diphthongs (see ſỵ, teỵl, § 30, 3, and § 33 end), occasionally initially (see **yeder**, ỵhm, ỵhren, &c. § 30, 1, 7) and next u, m, n, r, &c. (see wỵnters, wỵßſagt, § 30, 3, hỵrten, ſtỵm, § 30, 6); initially and to some extent in diphthongs it yielded to j, § 30, 7 end, § 19, elsewhere to i. See also § 241 R 6. ij, or ỵ, was also confused with ü, and so ỵ was sometimes written for ü.

21. In the 11th century the practice arose of placing a scratch, or ', over an **i** standing next to **u**, and later when next to **n** or **m**, to show, for ex., whether ui meant ui, that is vi, or iu, that is ju, and that in meant in or ni and not m. Later the ' was placed on all **i**'s (as is still done in Tudor and Caxton type), and then the ' gradually (first in the 14th century) gave way to the dot, which **y** had had since the 6th century. Dotted **y** may still occasionally be seen on sign-boards. See also § 20.

22. On the model of diphthongs, digraphs were sometimes made by writing one letter after or over another: e is still written after i (§ 195, 2 N 1), but over a, o, u (see kȫnnen, Anſprüche, hätte, § 30, 15) it has degenerated into two dots (§ 30, 21), while the o of uo (formerly a diphthong, § 236) or ů, (see bůch, klůg, § 30, 8) no longer appears except as a curl above the small written letter and is now used over all ſ's to distinguish them from ſſ. The old practice of representing n or m by a ¯ over a neighboring letter (see Mēſchwerdigūg des herrē, § 30, 4, dañ, § 30, 5, einē, Stum̄, § 30, 9) especially when the line was too short for two letters, may still occasionally be seen in script ſcheꝛ or ſcheſſe for ſcheſſen, ſcheſſen; but uñ for und (§ 30, 1, 5) is no longer used. Sometimes digraphs are made into ligatures: Æ § 17, ch, ß, &c., § 9, 4 b end, 2 = *et* § 15, 2.

Remark. — Ae, Oe, Ue, were generally retained side by side with ä or ä &c., but are condemned by the official spellers. They are still used by some printers because of the difficulties attending the casting of Ä, &c.

THE NUMERALS

23. 1) In the Roman numerals, IↃ is sometimes used for D, and CIↃ for uncial M, § 3. **u** or **ů** (= secundo) was once used for **uu** = 2, but **u** usually = **v** = 5. For **i** or **j**, **ii**, **vj**, &c., see § 18.

2) The Arabic numerals (originally the first letters of the Sanskrit names for the numerals) were introduced into Europe in the 10th and 11th centuries, but did not come into use until much later. The German printed forms do not differ from the English, but certain variations appear in the written forms. 1 is usually begun with an upward stroke, so that it may be taken for a 7 ; on the other hand, 7 is often crossed. Along the French border, for ex., at Strassburg, the French form of 5, which looks much like our 9 (compare those below), is in use. The following old forms, seen in inscriptions &c. (cf. § 9, 2 N), are often not understood or misunderstood : —

Chapter ij

SPELLING

THE NATURE OF SPELLING

24. Writing is not language, but a more or less imperfect picture of language. A perfect system of writing would have to supply (1) a sign for each sound and only one, (2) an indication of its duration, or length, (3) an indication of the stress of voice that falls on a syllable and the character of this stress, (4) an indication of the pitch and other modulations of the voice. Such an alphabet would be very useful to a philologist and he would be glad if all writing had been made in it. But writing is chiefly for practical purposes, and it is probably best that it contain no elements that the reader can more easily supply than interpret. Most alphabets aim only at the first and in part at the second requirement above.

IMPERFECT SYSTEMS

25. If they succeeded in this, one might be glad, but they usually fall far short. For the most part they have not been formed under favorable circumstances and, once in use, it is

---

Wilmanns: Die Orthographie in den Schulen Deutschlands, 2d ed., 1877. The spellers ("Regeln und Wörterverzeichnis") issued by the governments of Baden (Bd), 7th ed., 1893; Bavaria (Bv); Mecklenburg (M), 2d ed., 1885; Prussia (P), 3d ed., 1887; Saxony (Sx), 32d ed., 1894; Würtemberg (W), 4th ed., 1890; Austria (A), 1892; Switzerland (Sw), 4th ed., 1890; see § 28 and N. Duden: Orthographisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache, 4th ed., 1893.

difficult to change them. For example, the German alphabet was at first an adaptation to Old-German sounds of a foreign alphabet but imperfectly fitted for its new task; and as these sounds have changed from age to age, some even falling away and new ones arising, the written representation of them has sometimes remained unchanged, at others been imperfectly or clumsily modified by the addition of diacritical marks or silent letters.

26. And so it has come about (1) that one sound may be represented by two letters (that is, a digraph), for ex., the g in ſingen having become silent (§ 121), ng is regarded as the sign of the back nasal *ŋ*, formerly represented, as in Latin, by the n before the g, as it still is by n before t in ſinken; similarly the sound *ʃ* is represented by the trigraph ſch in ſchön, &c.; (2) that two or more neighboring sounds are sometimes represented by one letter, for ex., *ts* by z in zu; (3) that two or more neighboring sounds may be represented by two or more letters, neither of which is the ordinary representation of either of the sounds, for ex., *kß* by qu in quer, &c.; (4) that a sound is sometimes represented by one letter, sometimes by another, for ex., *s* by ſ s ſſ or ß in iſt, das, laſſen, daß, and *e* by e in Eltern, by ä in älter; (5) that a letter sometimes represents one sound, sometimes another, for ex., n in Bank and nein; (6) that a sound is not represented at all, for ex., the glottal stop, § 154, 2. Moreover, in the various parts of Germany, sounds changed differently and different means were resorted to to represent the changes.

REFORM MOVEMENTS

27. Thus, when in the 16th century a common literary language developed, there was much diversity and hence uncertainty of spelling, even the same writer using varying orthography. Grammarians succeeded in time in securing

more uniformity. During the 18th century, the systems of Freyer, Gottsched and Adelung were most esteemed. In this century two movements were observable : the tendency toward an historical or etymological spelling, represented by Jakob Grimm, and the tendency toward a phonetic spelling, represented by Rudolf von Raumer. The former, which could have pleased but few, namely students of older German, eventually yielded to the latter, which was in the interest of the many. The latter was assisted by the rise of the new science of phonetics and by the more general practice of stenography.

28. Orthographic conferences were held and official spellers were issued by various governments and schools ; more or less under the influence of the historical school : Hanover 1854, Leipzig 1857, Würtemberg 1861, Switzerland 1863 ; more or less under the influence of the phonetic school : Berlin 1871, Austria 1879, Bavaria 1879, Prussia 1880. Similar books were soon issued by Mecklenburg, Saxony and Baden, on the basis of the Bavarian and Prussian, while the Würtemberg and Swiss books were revised. These spellers harmonize in most important matters ; deviations from one another will be noticed in the rules below and in the Word-list.

Note. — There is most harmony between the spellers of the states of the German Empire, and their united dictum will be designated by G. (*a*) The Austrian book is more conservative, retaining, for ex., most th's, § 35 N ; it also follows Heyse and Sanders in writing ſs finally after short vowels, § 228 N ; (*b*) the Swiss book is more radical, discarding th for *t* in all native words, and preferring -iren to -ieren in verbs, § 44, 2 N ; it also favors the use of the Roman character.

29. The orthography thus established is employed in the printing of school-books and numerous recent publications ; but many newspapers and not a few books still follow some older system. The revision is but an imperfect one, suiting

neither those that would have a thoroughgoing reform nor the conservatives, and has been the butt of general abuse, partly because of the unpopularity of the Prussian Minister of Education (Puttkamer) who had most to do with its promulgation. The government that established it in the schools prohibited its officials from using it!

30. VARIETIES OF SPELLING

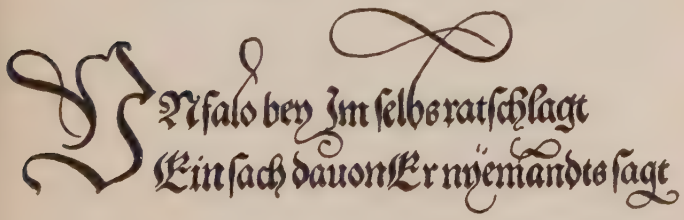
Illustrating also Styles of Type,* and Diversity of Usage as to Capitals.

(1)

Item das v das soll In mitten nit sten nur In anfang aines wartz Ex^{m} vater veter vleifs vilipp Item das u mag gestenn nundert dan in mit des wartz od' zulest aine wartz Ex^{m} euch du auch. Item das y. ist nach teutsch zwai ii vn verleust sein than vnd laud auf ain I. Ex^{m} zway yeclicher yeder ***Item die silbn ch wirt am maisten zu lest der wart genuczt Ex^{m} sach swach gsmach vnd ist ein silbn hert deuttig wan allein sy kain vollkomme sprach hat

Hueber's *Modus Legendi*, 1477.

(2. Theuerdank Fraktur, § 9, 4a N 1.)



The Theuerdank of 1517.

* The extracts are, mostly, photographic or careful typographical reproductions of the originals. (1) and (7) are from Müller's *Quellenschriften* and (9) is from Röthe's edition: I infer the originals of (7) and (9) were in Fraktur of the sizes given; the original of (1) is a Ms. probably in half-Gothic.

(3. German Bastard, § 9, 2.)

Etlichen böumē/vnd den merern teyl fallen ire bletter ab
ſo die kelte des wynters kumpt/wie wol ſy doch nit gar
vßſterben/den anderen fallen ſy niemar aß/ als dem pal-
men boum vnd hagendorn/ouch dem lorberboum/etlich
hand allweg grüny äßt vnd frucht. Aber diſer boum als
Joannes wyßſagt/bringt ſin frucht. xij. mal en zům jor/

Erasmus' tract "Uslegung des 1. Pſalmen" 1520.

(4. Italian Half-Gothic, § 9, 1 N.)

Leo Biſchoff ein diner aller diner Gottes. zw ewigem ge-
dechtnus der ſachen. O here ſtee auf erheb dich vnd
richt dein ſach ſei eingedenck deiner ſmehung die von den vil
weiſen den gantzē tagk ergeen neige dein oren zw vnſerer bitt.
Geben zu Rom bei ſant Peter im
iar der Menſchwerdigug des herrē Tauſent vumfhündert, vnd
zwenzigſten Jar am ſibenzehenden tagk vor dem erſten tagk
des monatz Julius oder hewmōdts vnſer Bapſtumbs im ach-
ten Jaer.

Beſehen R Milaneſius.

Albergatus

Opening and closing lines of bull issued (1520) against Luther.

(5. Early Fraktur, § 9, 4a; except second line, § 9, 1 N.)

Mathei am. xj. Capitel.

Nement mein joch oder geſatz
auff euch / vnnd lernet von mir/dañ ich bin
ſänfftmietig/vñ aines demietigen hertzens /
vnd mein geſatz oder joch iſt nutzpar / vnnd
mein bürd oder laſt iſt leycht.

Text of a tract of Erasmus', 1521.

(6. Schwabach, § 9, 3a.)

Das sy sich haben abgewendt
Von jrem hyrten vnd der wayd
Vnd haben sy verlassen bayd
Synd gangen nach des Mones scheyn
In die wildtnuß den holtzweg ein
Haben gehört des löwen stym
Vnd seynd auch nachgeuolget jm
Der sy gefürt hat mit lüste
Gantz weyt abwegs dieff in die wüste
Da habens jr süeß wayd verlozen

Hans Sachs, 1523.

(7)

Fabian Franck von Aslaw jnn

Schlesien / Freyer künste Magister / Bur

ger zum Buntzlaw / wündscht

heil dem Leser

* * * *

Wie wol das o vnd u / sonst gemeinlich mehr langk denn kürtz sein / wird jnen dennoch weilunds / vmb sicherung willen sie zuerlengern / odder auch zierd halb / das h zugefügt / doch mehr wolstehens denn nothalben / Vnd dis geschiet / wo kein erhoben buchstab / als / b d f ꝛc. / nah da bey stehet / als vernohmen / zurhonnen / mühen / benühmen / rhum ꝛc.

Weil das y alleweg lang ist / wird jm on not das h (solchs zuerlengen) zugefüget / wis der gemeine brauch bey vielen helt / als / yhm yhnen yhren und der gleichen / So doch / ym oder ynen ꝛc. / on das h gnug were / Vnd wird der gestalt / mehr für einen vberfluss / odder hindernuss angesehen / denn nothalben gebraucht / Weils den vngeübten leser mehr hindert odder seumet denn fördert. Ettliche aber / setzen im schreiben gewönlich ein lanng krumb J / im druck aber / ein lang gerad j dis orts / an seine stat / Welches mir am besten gefellt.

Frangk's Cantzley, 1531.

(8. Schwabach with Bastard capitals, § 9, 3a N.)

Syrach / welcher der öberſt fürſt gewe
ſen iſt / im hauſe Juda / wie man aus
Philone mag nemen / vmb die zwey=
hundert jar vor Chriſt geburt / onge=
fehr bey Maccabeer zeit.

Es iſt ein nützlich büch für den ge=
meinen man / denn auch alle ſein fleiß
iſt / das er einen burger oder haußuat=
ter Gottförchtig / from vnd klüg ma=
che / wie er ſich gegē Gott / Gots wort /
Prieſtern / Eltern / weib / kindern / ei=
gen leib / güter / knechtenn / nachbarn /
freundē / feindē / öberkeit vñ jederman
halten ſol

Luther's Introduction to Jeſus Syrach, 1533.

(9)

(*a*) So in einē Wort w der leste Büchſtab iſt: oder auch wan am end des worts nach im volgen diſe Sylben / er / ere / eres / e / en / eſt / eſter / ete / iſch / eriſche / ꝛc. wirdt dz w geleſen wie ein u. Fraw / Hanaw / erfreweſt / beſchawen / gehawete / Willisow / Suntgewiſche. Stum iſt w ** wan es dem au / eu / ** zugeſetzt worden. Neüw / grauwe.

(*b*) Die J / i / j werden gebrauchet nit allein als Selblautende Büchſtaben / wie in diſen Worten: Wan der Wirt wirdt kommen / wird ich jhm / ꝛc. ſonder auch als ein Mitſtimmender / vnd wirdt ſtarck alſo ausgeſprochen / das man halben teils ein g höꝛt / vnd gleichſam ein i darauf: Jung / jener / verjehen / majeſtet / verie=ſen / Job / Jacob / dreijerig / &c.

(*c*) Das Mittel B lautet vaſt ſo lind als der jene Büchſtab den man das doppel v heißt / nemlich das W.

Helber's Teutſches Syllabierbüchlein, 1593.

(Early Modern Fraktur, § 9, 4b.)

(10) Das j (jod) muß vor einen mitlautenden niemals geſchrieben werden / alſo ſchreibt man nicht recht jmmerdar / jſt / jzzo / ſondern immerdar / iſt / izzo ꝛc. und wehre guht / wan in den Trükkereien das jod mit einem Strichlein / wie es gemeiniglich pflege geſchrieben zuwerden / zum nötigen Unterſcheide / verhanden wehre / als J / J.

Auf i gehet kein Wort aus / ſonderen man braucht am Ende das j / als frej / ſej.

Man pflege zu ſchreiben jhm / jhr ꝛc. ſo aber falſch / das jod kan daſelbſt nicht ſtehen / ſondern muß heiſſen ihm / ihr. Schottel's Sprach Kunſt, 1651.

(11) JESUS meine Zuverſicht
Und mein Heyland iſt im Leben / ꝛc. 1653.

(12) Neueingerichter und vielverbeſſerter
Abentheurlicher
SIMPLICISSIMUS
Das iſt:
Beſchreibung deß Lebens eines ſelzamen Vaganten / genant Melchior Stern- 1669.

(13)

Mit nächſter Gelegenheit von hier will ich mehr ſchreiben / der HERR ſey mit eurer Weißheit / und ſein Nahme euer feſtes Schloß / Amen!

Germandon in Pensylvania Americae
d. 7. Aug. 1694.

(14)

Aber, o Werk, das nur GOtt allgegenwärtig erkennet,
Darf sich die Dichtkunst auch wohl aus dunkler Ferne dir nähern?
Weihe sie, Geist Schöpfer, vor dem ich im stillen hier bete; &c.

Klopstock, 1749.

(15) **Das Fräulein.** Sie sprechen, wie ein Mann sprechen muß, dem die Großen hinwiederum sehr entbehrlich sind. Und niemals waren sie es mehr, als ietzt. Ich sage den Großen meinen großen Dank, daß sie ihre Ansprüche auf einen Mann haben fahren lassen, den ich doch nur sehr ungern mit ihnen getheilet hätte. — Ich bin ihre Gebietherinn, Tellheim: Sie brauchen weiter keinen Herrn.

Lessing, 1770.

(16)

Es haben sich daher seit der Wiederherstellung der Wissenschaften auch mehrere gelehrte Männer angelegen seyn lassen, diese Kenntnifs zu befördern und zu verbreiten; nur dafs sie dabey verschiedene Wege gegangen sind. ** Seit dem der Italiäner, Anton Pigafetta, um 1536 zuerst Wörter in den von ihm bereiseten Ländern sammelte, ** Was die Zweckmäfsigkeit betrifft, so schien mir eine solche Formel ihres Zweckes ganz zu verfehlen, wenn sie nicht mit einer buchstäblichen Übersetzung versehen ist.

Adelung, 1806.

(17)

Überall wurde sonst von den latein schreibenden und redenden geistlichen lateinische schrift an die stelle der runischen gesetzt ; ** Hierzu tritt aber noch etwas anderes, die häßlichste entstellung ist ohne zweifel der römischen majuskel widerfahren (man halte ᛒᚹᚷᛇ zu BPGI ; auf stein als capitalschrift ist solche ungeheuer weder einzuhauen noch zu lesen leicht), deren anwendung unter der minuskel nur sein kann, den beginn der sätze und reihen, dann aber eigennamen hervorzuheben. so wird sie allenthalben in griechischen oder lateinischen büchern, namentlich auch in deutschen handschriften des ganzen mittelalters, und noch in den Drucken des 15, zum theil des 16 jh. gebraucht.

Jakob Grimm, 1840.

(18)

Das ſſ (ſs) hingegen iſt ein wirklicher Doppel-Conſonant und ſteht als ſolcher nur nach einem geſchärften Vocale, **; z. B. ** haſſen, er haſſt, der Haſs, ꝛc.

Heyse's Grammar, edition of 1873.

(19)

Es ist aber doch sehr fraglich, ob die schreibung *sz* sich bewahrt haben würde, wenn nicht im silbenanlaut das bedürfniss vorhanden gewesen wäre, zwischen dem harten und dem weichen laute zu scheiden (vgl. *reiszen – reisen, flieszen – fliesen*), während in der verbindung *st* das *s* stets hart ist.

Paul's *Principien*, 1886.

(20)

Fühlt Ihr es nicht, daß meine [the Brook's] Quelle das Herz des Waldes iſt, an meiner ganzen Erſcheinung, an dem Hauch von Gefühl und Wehmuth, der Euch aus mir entgegen athmet? ** Ueberall errege ich Gefühl. ** Der Stein könnte Euch Manches erzählen, denn ſein Gedächtniß ragt in längſt vergangene Zeiten.

Putlitz, 1890.

(21)

Vor allem danke ich Herrn Prof. Barack in Straßburg für die Überweisung seiner lexikalischen Sammlungen aus der Litteratur des 16/17. Jahrhunderts, ferner meinem geehrten Verleger Karl Trübner in Straßburg und Herrn Oskar Böhme in Reichenbach i. V. für Hilfe in derselben Richtung. ** Herr Dr. Ferd. Mentz in Straßburg hat eine Ergänzung ** der Register ** beigefügt.

Friedrich Kluge, 1893.

THE BASIS OF SPELLING

31. Though the phonetic principle : *Designate each sound, that is heard in correct and distinct enunciation, by its appropriate sign*, is placed at the beginning of the spellers, its application is much restricted.

1) The alphabet is imperfect, § 25.

2) Pronunciation is not uniform and there is no standard of correctness, § 158–9, 162–3.

3) Where the traditional spelling has long been fixed, it has not been changed: und *unt*, Abt *apt;* but Papſt, formerly Bab(e)ſ(t), Pabſt, or Papſt.

4) The spelling of a word may be regulated by the analogy of a related word or form that is differently pronounced: Lob löblich with b because of Lobes, mag with g because of mögen. This tendency, while natural enough, leads to no good and much confusion and cannot be carried far anyway : for ex., we can write mag, which North Germans pronounce mach and South Germans mak, but we must write ch in möchte.

5) Two words sounded alike or nearly alike may be spelled differently to distinguish them to the eye. Tod 'death', tot 'dead'; Lid 'eyelid', Lied 'song'; bläuen 'to blue', bleuen 'to strike'; and so formerly ſeyn 'to be', but ſein 'his', § 191. At first sight this might recommend

itself; but it is evident that it would be impossible to distinguish by variety in spelling more than a few of the many meanings a word may have, while, on the other hand, the context will tell what a word means when written as well as when spoken.

THE CHOICE BETWEEN DIFFERENT LETTERS REPRESENTING THE SAME OR SIMILAR SOUNDS

Note. For ee, eh, e; ie, ih, i, &c., cf. §§ 42 &c.

32. ä, e (§§ 120, 3; 176, 185); **äu, eu** (§§ 120, 3; 177, 190).

ä and äu are generally employed to represent mutated a and au when some form of the word or some evidently related word contains a or au. So älter, Länder, Räume, läuft, Ärmel, gläubig, — because of alt, Land, Raum, laufen, Arm, Glaube.

Note 1. But ä and äu are sometimes used though there be no corresponding words with a or au (so Ähre, räuſpern); and e is sometimes used where one might expect ä (so behende Hand, Eltern alt, fertig Fahrt).

Note 2. Ähre 'ear (of grain)', anſträngen 'to yoke', Färſe 'heifer', Lärche 'larch-tree', währen 'to last', but Ehre 'honor', anſtrengen 'to strain', Ferſe 'heel', Lerche 'lark', ſich wehren 'to resist'; and bläuen 'to blue', gräulich 'grayish', but bleuen 'to strike', greulich 'horrible', are distinguished according to § 31, 5.

33. ai, ay, ei, ey (§§ 172, 174, 188, 191).

ai (a more phonetic spelling than ei) is written in Hai, Kaiſer, Krain 'Carniola', Laie, Lakai, Mai, Maid, Mailand 'Milan', the city Mainz, Mais, Maiſch(e), maiſchen. Die Bai, Hain 'grove', Laib 'loaf', the river Main, Rain 'balk', Saite 'string', Waiſe 'orphan', are distinguished according to § 31, 5, from der Bei or Bey 'bey', bei 'by', Freund Hein 'death', Leib 'body', mein 'my', rein 'clean', the river

Rhein, Seite 'side, page', die Weiſe 'manner, tune', der Weiſe 'philosopher'; similarly Laich 'spawn', Waid 'woad', but Leiche 'corpse', Weide 'pasture, willow'.

Elsewhere **ei** is used. ay and ey now occur only in proper names, so Bayern, der Bayer, Norderney; but see § 20.

34. b, p (§ 178).

The same consonant is written finally* as medially, even if there is a change in the sound (§§ 31, 4, & 108, 2). So plump like plumper; Leib, leiblich, like Leibes, &c.

b is written in ab, Abt, Erbſe, Herbſt, hübſch, Krebs, ob, Obſt, Rebhuhn, ſelbſt, &c., also in Wildbret, but p in Papſt, Propſt, &c.

35. d, t, dt, th (§§ 184, 231).

The same consonant is written finally* as medially, even if there is a change in the sound (§§ 31, 4, & 108, 2). So der Tod, Todfeind -ſünde, todbringend -krank -müde -wund, tödlich, &c., like Todes; but tot 'dead', der Tote, Totenhaus, Totſchlag, töten.

d: Beredſamkeit (but beredt), Verſand (but verſandt), und, jemand, &c., anweſend (but Anweſenheit), eilends, vollends, zuſehends, &c. (but unverſehens, eigens, without d; see § 122 end), hoffend, endlich (but hoffentlich, eigentlich, &c., with t, cf. below), Konfirmand, Examinand, but nearly all others -ant, see below. For ſeid 'are, be!', but ſeit 'since', see § 31, 5.

t: Brot, Tinte, Dilettant, Emigrant, Hoſpitant, &c. (but see -and above), beziehentlich, eigentlich, flehentlich, gelegentlich, hoffentlich, wiſſentlich (but hoffend above, eigens, &c.),

* Consonants are said to be (1) *initial*, if the first of a word, and even if preceded by another stem (as in a compound) or by a prefix (Stein, Ge-ſtein, Bei-ſpiel, Freund-ſchaft); (2) *medial*, if followed by a suffix or inflectional ending that begins with a vowel (gütig, Buches, Schlüſſel); (3) *final*, if at the end of a word (Bär, Berg, geſagt) or of a syllable (Mäd-chen, täg-lich, lob-te, Hech-ſe). See §§ 89 &c.

ent=, ant=. Ton 'sound', ſeit 'since', but Thon 'clay', ſeid 'are, be!', according to § 31, 5.

dt is rare: er ſandte, geſandt, Geſandtſchaft, beredt (but Beredſamkeit), er ladt (but wird), &c.; also names like Arndt. For Stadt 'city', der Städter, ſtädtiſch, but Statt and Stätte 'place', ſtatt 'instead', ſtattfinden, &c., see § 31, 5.

th: Thal, Thaler, that, thätig, &c., Thon 'clay', (but Ton 'sound', § 31, 5), Thor, thöricht, Thran, Thräne, thun, Thunfiſch, Thür(e), Unterthan; the names Bertha, Diether, Günther, Lothar, Lothringen, Luther, Mathilde, Theobald, Thüringen, Thusnelde, Walt(h)er; and many adopted words: Thermometer, Thron, Thee, Zither, &c., cf. §§ 45, 48, 15.

> Note. (*a*) In native words G now writes t not th: (1) before short accented vowels, diphthongs, and those long vowels whose length is indicated by doubling or the like (Turm; Tau, Teil, teuer; Teer, Tier), (2) in =tum, =tümer, =tüm (Eigentum, Ungetüm), (3) medially and finally (Atem, raten, Geratewohl, Mut, rot, Wirt, wert). (*b*) Sw discards silent h after t in all but adopted words; while A retains it even in most cases where it is now discarded by G. § 28, N.

36. ds (§ 150 N 2), **ts, z** (§ 242).

Before an *s* belonging to an inflectional syllable or to an element of a compound, the d or t of the stem is retained, § 31, 4: Lands, Hauptſache, Rätſel: elsewhere the sound *ts* is represented by z or tz (cf. § 46 N 3), but tſ in Lotſe < Dutch.

37. f, v, ph.

1) The sound of *f* is usually represented by f, § 192: Feld, feſt, fordern, fördern (but vorder, zuvörderſt), Fülle, füllen (but voll), für (but vor), Strafe, Kampf; also in the foreign words: Elefant, Elfenbein, Faſan; and in the names Adolf, Arnulf, Ludolf, Rudolf, Weſtfalen.

2) **v** (§ 238) is written (never before u, ü, cf. § 16, 1 R): —

(*a*) *initially* (§ 35 ft), in Vater, Veilchen, ver=, Vers, Vetter, (Gevatter), Vieh, viel 'much' (fiel 'fell'), vier, Vließ, Vogel,

Vogt, Volk, voll (but Fülle, füllen), von, vor (but für), vorder (but fordern, fördern), vorn, zuvörderſt, and their derivatives.

(*b*) *medially*, in Frevel, Pulver, and geographical names like Bovenden, Hannover, Havel, Kleve, Ravensburg.

(*c*) *finally*, in foreign words like brav, Nerv, Guſtav, Levko'je.

3) **ph** occurs in Epheu and in foreign words, cf. § 219.

38. g, ch (§§ 197, 2, 198, 2), **k** (§ 205).

1) The same consonant is written finally as medially, even if the pronunciation changes, § 31, 4: König Könige, Fähnrich Fähnriche, Werk Werkes, Werg Werges.

2) **g** is written: —

(*a*) In names in -wig (Hedwig, Ludwig, &c.), and in some nouns in -ig: Eſſig, Käfig, König, Pfennig, &c.

(*b*) In adjectives in -ig: artig, gütig, &c.

> Note. The suffix -lich is regularly written with ch, but after l of the stem it has been mistaken for the -ig of heil-ig, &c. Thus adel-ig for adel-lich, and billig, völlig, buckelig, &c.

(*c*) In Jagd, Magd, Vogt; for mag, magſt, but möchte, see § 31, 4; for Teig 'dough,' Zwerg 'dwarf', but Teich 'pond', zwerch 'awry', § 31, 5; compare also kriegen 'make war, get', taugen 'be good', ſiegen 'conquer', verſiegen 'dry up', with kriechen 'crawl', tauchen 'dive', ſiechen 'be sick', verſiechen 'languish, expire', and see §§ 197, 1 R*a*, 198, 1 R.

3) **ch** is written: —

(*a*) in substantives in -rich (Enterich, Fähnrich, Heinrich, &c.), also in Pfirſich, Rettich, Teppich, &c. For Teich, zwerch, kriechen, ſiechen, &c., cf. 2 *c*, above.

(*b*) in adjectives and adverbs in -lich (cf. note to 2 *b*, above), thus ehrlich, glücklich, &c., and so veröffentlichen, &c. Notice allmählig < gemach.

(*c*) in substantives and adjectives in -icht: Dickicht, thöricht, &c.; but Predigt < Prediget.

39. gs, ks, ck, (cks), chs, (chs), x.

1) Stems in g, k, ck retain these letters before the *s* of an ending or added stem: flugs Flug, links link, Knicks knickſen knicken, ſtracks ſtrack.

2) Elsewhere the sound *ks* is spelled: —

(*a*) generally chs (§ 182): Achſe, Achſel, Flachs, Ochs, ſechs, wachſen, &c., also Sachſen 'Saxony', Weichſel, &c.

(*b*) but x (§ 240) in Axt, Faxe, Hexe, Nix, Nixe, and in many foreign words (§ 48, 10).

40. ls (lſ), lz; ns (nſ), nz, § 122.

1) ls, ns: Fels, Hals, Hülſe, Binſe, die Gans 'goose' (but ganz 'whole'), Linſe, winſeln.

2) lz, nz: Salz, Schmalz, Walze, wälzen, ganz 'whole' (but die Gans), grunzen, Lanze, Popanz, Ranzen, Runzel, Schanze, verhunzen, Wanze.

41. ſ, ſſ, ß, s. For adopted words, cf. § 48, 12.

1) *Initially* (§ 35 ft), only ſ (capital S) is used: ſagen, Sache and Hauptſache, Segen, Unſegen, so achtſam, Schickſal, Rätſel.

Note. So too before t and p, an ſ or S is written for / (§ 225): ſtehen, Spiel.

2) *Medially*: —

(*a*) Between vowels *z* (§ 223) is represented by ſ: Geiſel 'hostage', Muſe 'muse', reiſen 'travel', weiſen 'show', die-ſer; so too when e is omitted, thus unſrer for unſerer.

(*b*) Between vowels *s* (§ 228 & N) is represented by ſſ after short vowels (§ 46 N 3 end): haſſen, eſſen; by ß after long vowels: Geißel 'scourge', Muße 'leisure', reißen 'tear', weißen 'whitewash'.

(*c*) After consonants, ſ is written: Erbſe, Eidechſe, Füchſe, emſig, &c.

(*d*) Also before p or t of the stem: Eſpe, Knoſpe, Huſten.

3) *Finally:* —

(*a*) before t of the stem, ſ is written: Aſt, faſt, &c.

(*b*) for either medial ſſ or medial ß, ß only is written (A alone requires ſs for medial ſſ): faſſen but er faßt (cf. below *c*, end), faßte, gefaßt, faßlich; grüßen and so er grüßt, grüßte, &c. Notice also miß- (A requires ſs) in Mißbrauch, mißlich, &c., and even before vowels, so mißachten.

Note. But aus, des (deshalb, desſelben, &c.), wes (weshalb, &c.), in spite of außer, deſſen, weſſen, so As (A requires Aſs) pl. Aſſe, Billet pl. Billette, and -nis in spite of -niſſe(n), cf. § 47.

(*c*) for medial ſ, s is written: böſe but bös, boshaft, Bosheit; but ſ is retained by G in forms like er reiſt (for reiſet), reiſte (A requires s, Sw allows either), though ſſ becomes ß in similar cases, cf. *b*, above.

(*d*) in suffixes and inflections, s (§ 8 ft) is written: Mannes, jenes, flugs, Atlas, Bildnis (in spite of Bildniſſe), &c. So also in Freiheitskrieg, Dienstag, &c.

(*e*) in words that have no corresponding medial forms, s is written: als, bis, bisher, was, es, das 'the, that', dasjenige, &c. For daß (A requires daſs) 'that' as conjunction, see § 31, 5.

(*f*) When words like Laſten, Knoſpe, Waſſer, are divided (§ 49, 2), the retention of ſ is preferred, but usage varies and the official spellers are not dogmatic on the subject.

SIGNS OF THE LENGTH OF VOWELS

For adopted words see § 48, 17.

42. When a long vowel is not followed by two or more consonants, its length is generally left unindicated: da, bar, haben. Similarly before ch, ſch, &c. (§ 137 N 1), and even, at times, before several consonants (§ 141 end).

43. The length of an a, e, or (rarely) o may be indicated by writing it double.

Remark. In the adopted word liieren, -iie- = iī.

1) **aa**: Aal, Aas, Haar, das Paar and ein paar, Saal, Saat, Staat (but Säle, Härchen, not Sääle, &c. Similarly proper names: Aachen, die Aar(e) the river, Aargau, Haag, Haarlem, Maas, Raab, Saale, Saar, Waal. For der Aar 'eagle', der Maat, but der or das Ar 'an are', die Mahd, see § 31, 5.

2) **ee**: Beere, Beet, Klee, Krakeel, Lee, ſcheel, Schnee, See, Seele (but ſelig), Speer, Teer; and some adopted words, for ex., Thee; also the river Spree. Distinguish Geeſt 'geest', Heer 'army' and verheeren, leer and leeren 'to empty', Meer 'sea', Reede (also Rhede) 'roadstead', from gehſt 'goest', her 'hither' and hehr 'sublime', lehren 'teach', mehr 'more', Rede 'speech', 31, 5.

Note. In the inflection of words ending in ee another e is not added (so der See = *zē*, des Sees = *zēs* or *zē'zs*), unless it is intended to call attention to the extra syllable; compare English *freer*, *agreed*. For adopted words see § 185 N 5.

3) **oo**: Boot, das Moor 'heath' (but der Mohr 'negro', see § 31, 5), Moos; but Bötchen not Böötchen.

44. **ie** represents *ī* in many words: —

1) Native words like Bier, Liebe, Sieg. For Lied 'song', Stiel 'handle', wieder 'again', but Lid 'eyelid', Stil 'style', wider 'against', see § 31, 5. Notice giebſt, giebt, gieb, or gibſt, gibt, gib; see Word-list. For fieng, gieng, hieng, see Word-list.

2) Words of foreign origin, ending in -ie, -ier, -ieren: Partie', Papier', ſtudie'ren, and others like them.

Note. Sw requires -iren in most words (§ 28 N), allowing -ieren only in a few having a corresponding noun with -ie-: barbieren, regieren, ſpazieren, &c., see § 31, 4.

3) Some other words of foreign origin: Brief, Fiedel, Prieſter, &c. For Fieber 'fever' (but Fiber 'fibre'), Miene 'mien' (but Mine 'mine'), see § 31, 5.

Note 1. In the inflection of words ending in ie, another e is not added (so das Knie = *ī*, die Knie = *ī* or *ī'ə*, auf den Knien = *in* or *ī'ən*), unless it be intended to call attention to the extra syllable (so die Kniee = *knī'ə*).

Note 2. In some LG names, e or i is added to a vowel as a sign of length, so Itzehoe, Soeſt, Troisdorf. Toaſt, Coaks, &c., < English, are similarly regarded.

45. ȟ is often (esp. before l, m, n, r, § 30, 7) used to indicate the length of a preceding vowel; if t precede, the ȟ is written after that (Thal, &c., cf. § 35 & N): Fahrt (but Hoffart), Kohl, Ruhm, Sohn, ihr, Naht. See § 31, 5, for Bohle 'plank' (but Bowle 'bowl, punch'), gehſt 'goest' (but Geeſt), hehr 'sublime' (but Heer 'army', her 'hither'), hohl 'hollow' (but holen 'fetch'), ihr, lehren 'teach' (but leeren 'empty'), Mahd (but Maat), Mahl 'repast' (but Mal 'time, mark'), mahlen 'grind' (but malen 'paint'), Mähre 'mare' (but Märe 'story'), Mehl 'flour' (but Meltau 'mildew'), mehr 'more' (but Meer 'sea'), Mohr 'negro' (but Moor 'heath'), Sohle 'sole, sill' (but Sole 'brine'), Uhr 'timepiece' (but Ur 'urus'), Wahl 'choice' and Wahlplatz (but Walſtatt or Wahlſtatt 'battlefield'), wahr 'true' (but war 'was'), Wehr (but wer 'who', Wergeld).

Note 1. Before the ȟ of -heit a silent ȟ is dropped, so roh but Roheit; not so in compounds, thus Strohhut, &c.

Note 2. In some cases silent ȟ has an historical value, having once been pronounced, so ſehen, ſah, &c. (§ 200 *b*).

DOUBLE CONSONANTS

For the pronunciation of double consonants see §§ 155–6.

46. 1) After a short vowel of the stem, a consonant is doubled if it is the only one there: fallen, Fall; so too even if inflectional endings are added: du fällſt, er fällt, des Falls,

der ſtraffſte, — and nimmſt, triffſt, troff, griff, though the infinitive has a long vowel.

2) Similarly in compounds and derivatives: Hemmſchuh, Fallthür, Sammler, Sammlung; but if the origin or force of either element is not obvious,* the consonant is often written single: Brand and Brunſt — brennen (but Branntwein because of gebrannt), Kunſt and Kunde — kennen (but kenntlich, Kenntnis because of gekannt), Geſchäft — ſchaffen, ſumſen — ſummen*, Spindel — ſpinnen, alſo — all, Himbeere, Singrün, Walnuß, &c.

Note 1. The consonant is not doubled in most monosyllables that are always or often unaccented: in es, in, das, &c. (cf. § 144 ft), also weg, wes; still dann, denn, wann, wenn.

Note 2. In compounds two consonants are written for three, if all have the same sound: dennoch, Mittag, Dritteil or Drittel, Schiffahrt, Brenneſſel. But ck, tz, &c. are never simplified: Rückkehr, Schutzzoll, Schlußſatz. See also § 49 N 4.

Remark. This is the rule as given in Bv, Bd, and A; the others prescribe it only in the five examples given above; but Sx permits it in others: Betttuch or Bettuch, Stillleben or Stilleben, &c., and Sw prescribes and W permits the spelling Bett-Tuch, Still-Leben, &c.

Note 3. For kk we write ck, so Bäcker (for Bäk-ker, cf. § 49 N 1). As z = *ts*, only t is repeated, so tz (= *tts*), thus ſetzen; x is never doubled; § 137 N 1 end. Digraphs and trigraphs (ch, ſch, &c.) are never doubled. Medial ſſ may be regarded as a double ß: beißen, but gebiſſen, &c. (§ 41, 2 *b*).

47. In suffixes having a short vowel under a secondary accent, a following single consonant is doubled only when a vowel is added, so Atlas, Gräfin, Zeugnis, — but Atlaſſe, Gräfinnen, Zeugniſſe, &c., cf. 41, 3 N.

Note. Still the doubling of m is shirked in Eidame, Bräutigame, Pilgrime, and in Reichtümer, ſorgſamer, &c., even by those who pronounce ŭ and ă, cf. §§ 237, N 2 end, 170, N 3 end; and, on the other hand, tz for z *is* written in Kiebitz, Stieglitz, Moritz, Lauſitz.

---

* Even here there is inconsistency, for ck (cf. § 46 N 3) and tz are written for k and z in Klecks, Knicks, nackt, jetzt, also in druckſen, gluckſen, &c.

THE SPELLING OF ADOPTED WORDS

For the division of adopted words see § 50.

48. There is much diversity and inconsistency in the writing of foreign words. In general, the longer a word has been in the language and the more it has accommodated itself in pronunciation to the German language, the more apt it is to be written as a German word.

1) **i** for Greek *υ*, or **y**: Gips, Silbe, Sirup, Stil, Zimbel; but Gymnaſium, Lyrik, Myrte, Nymphe, Syſtem, &c., cf. § 241.

2) **ü** for French **u**: Broſchüre, Koſtüm, Lektüre, Tribüne; but Revenue, Revue, &c.

3) **u** for French **ou**: Bluſe, Gruppe, Luiſe, Suppe, Truppe, &c.; but Bouquet, Couſine, Route, Tour, &c.

4) **o** for French **au**: Schaffot; but Sauce, Büreau, Plateau, &c.

5) **ä** for foreign **ai**: Fontäne, Migräne, Äſthetik, Äther, Pädagog, &c., especially in -än, -är: Kapitän, Souverän, Militär, Sekretär; but Affaire, Chaiſe, cf. § 172 R 3.

6) **ö** for French (**o**)**eu**: Möbel, Manöver, Pöbel, &c., especially in -ös: nervös, religiös; but adieu, Ingenieur.

7) **k** for Lat. **c** (Greek *κ*): Kamel, Kanal, Kanzler, Kaſſe, Klaſſe, Kloſter, Krone, Advokat, Prädikat, Akademie, Demokratie; Fabrik, Muſik, Arithmetik, Phyſik; Artikel, Muskel; direkt, Punkt, Dialekt, elektriſch; Koalition, Kollege, Kommentar, Kongreß, Korruption. — But c remains in cc and cqu: Accord, Acquiſition.

> Remark. — In the same word the *k*-sound must not be differently represented, so not correkt nor korrect. Indicativus has c as a Latin word, Indikativ has k as a Germanized word.

8) Greek *χ* is represented by **ch**, but pronounced *k* in Charakter, Chor, Choral, Chriſt, Chronik, &c. See also § 181, 1.

9) **k** for French **qu**: Etikette, Marke, Paket; but Bouquet, Clique, &c.

10) Foreign **x** is retained : Xantippe, Axiom, boxen, Examen, Exempel, &c.

11) **z** for foreign **c**, **t**, before front vowels : Zelle, Zirkel, Lanze, Polizei, so in the ending =zieren, and when final: Kreuz, Prinz, Distanz, Differenz, Duodez, Hospiz. In other cases usage varies : z usually in Dezember, Konzert, Medizin, Offizier; c usually in Cigarre, Cirkus, social, spezifisch. Similarly Zepter or Scepter, § 179 R.

But **c** is retained in **cc**, **sc**, and **xc** ; in words originally Greek ; and in names : and **t** is retained in **=tia, =tic, =tion** : Accent, Disciplin, Excellenz; Cyklus, Cylinder, Rhinoceros; Cicero, Cimber; martialisch, Patient, Nation, still Grazie, =ös.

And **zz**, rather than **tz**, is retained in Intermezzo, Skizze, &c.

12) **ss** for French **c** : Rasse; but **c** or **ç** in Sauce, Façon, Façade (or Fassade), &c.

The *s*-sound is generally represented as in German words ; so Sekunde, rasieren, Pension, Kasse, Passion; Spaß, spaßen, Baß, Kongreß, Puls, Diskant, Disciplin, Islam, Israelit, Maske, Muskel, brüsk. But before p and t, **s** is generally written : Hospiz, Distanz, Distrikt (still Dispens, Disput, &c.).

13) **sch** for French **ch** : Broschе, Depeschе, Maschine, &c., but Chaussee, Chef, &c.

14) Foreign **(r)rh** is retained in Rhabarber, Rhetorik, rheumatisch, Katarrh. So too in the names Rhein, Rhön, Rhone.

15) Foreign **th** is retained in Theater, Thee, Theorie, Thermometer, Thron, Arithmetik, Methode, &c. All such (except *tea*) have *th* in English. Notice Autor for English *author*, in which *h* has intruded.

16) Foreign **v**, whether = f or w (cf. § 238), is generally retained : Veilchen, Vers, Vogt, Pulver, brav, Nerv, Vesper, &c., Nominativ, relativ, &c. ; Vase, Kavalier, Novelle, &c. But Karawane, Krawatte, Lawine, &c.

17) Signs of Quantity etc : —

(*a*) In final accented syllables we write (1) sometimes **ee**, sometimes **é** — even if the rest of the word is written in German letters: Allee, Armee, Idee, Thee, and, with secondary accent, Kaff'ee'; Café, Coupé, Negligé; (2) **ie** (= *ī*): Chemie, Galerie, Philosophie.

(*b*) In (1) final accented syllables, the following consonant is generally doubled if the vowel is short: Duell, reell, Ballett, nett, Galopp, barock; so too before *ə*: Cigarre, Etikette, Gruppe; but Hotel, Billet, Bouquet, Budget, see § 138, N 2*c*. In (2) unaccented syllables the foreign doubling is sometimes simplified: Bajonett, Pionier, Pomade.

Chapter iij

THE DIVISION OF WORDS AT THE END OF A LINE

Remark. — There is much less uniformity in the rules the various governments have issued as to this matter than in those on spelling. For the phonetic division of words into syllables, see §§ 88 &c.

a) Native Words.

49. 1) Compound words are divided into their elements: Diens=tag, auf=ſtehen, voll=enden, her=aus, hin=ein, vor=über, dar=auf, war=um; Be=griff, zer=ſtört, Un=art, ent=arten (but em=pfangen, Em=pfang, § 91 N 1 *a*).

2) Beyond this, words are so divided that the new line begins, if possible, with a single consonant (ch, ſch, ph, ß, th represent but one sound and count as single consonants; for ng, cf. note 1), see §§ 89, 91: lob=te, Früh=ling, Tromm=ler, Erb=ſe, Drechs=ler, lo=ben, Bü=cher, wa=ſchen; so* tap=fer, krat=zen, laſ=ten and liſ=peln or las=ten and lis=peln, § 41, 3 *f*. So ad=lig, though the phonetic division is a=dlig, § 91, N 2.

Note 1. Double consonants as well as dt and ng, though representing but a single sound each,* are divided, and ck becomes kk*: Trom=mel, wiſ=ſen, Städ=te, Fin=ger, Bäk=ker.

Note 2. For gün=ſtig, äng=ſtigen, ſum=pfig, Kar=pfen, &c., see § 91, 2*.

Note 3. What is cut off must contain at least one syllable, and a division must be avoided if but one letter is thereby set off, so never ſt=reng, A=bel.

---

* Bv & W put ng with the preceding syllable (Fing=er); A, Bv, & Sw put ſp, ſt, ß, ck, pf, as well as ch, ſch, x, &c., with the following syllable (la=ſten, li=ſpeln, ha=cken, kra=ßen, &c.); P & Sx do so with dt (Stä=dte, Verwan=dte), and P & W with pf (klo=pfen); W also specifies that ſt of a superlative should not be divided (treu=ſte, be=ſte).

Note 4. Most (not Bd) of those who drop one of three consonants in compounds (§ 46 N 2 & R) restore it when the word is divided (Schiff-fahrt, &c.), except in Mit-tag, den-noch.

b) Adopted Words.

50. Foreign words are divided about as native words are.

1) Compounds are divided into their elements (Ex-empel, Inter-eſſe, Demo-krat, Mikro-ſkop, Pro-blem (and usually Pro-ſelyt, Pro-ſodie), Trans-aktion (but observe Tran-ſit and tran-ſpirieren, and so ab-ſtrakt).

2) (*a*) A single consonant goes with the following vowel (Me-ter, Kri-tik, pſy-chiſch, Pro-phet, cf. § 49, 2); (*b*) two consonants are separated (Mag-nolie, Arith-metik), but a stop consonant goes with a following l or r, § 91, 3 (Pu-blikum, Ne-gligé, Pa-tro-klus, Ma-tratze, Me-trum, Emi-grant); (*c*) of three consonants the last two go to the new line (elek-triſch, ob-ſkur), and ſ goes with following tr (Mini-ſtrant); (*d*) two vowels of different syllables are separated (Kre-atur, Po-eſie).

Chapter iv

THE USE OF CAPITALS

51. Capital letters have already been spoken of as the originals of all letters, § 2. We have also seen that when the text came to be written in small letters, the capitals were used to distinguish certain words, § 3. The capital beginning a chapter or stanza was usually larger and more ornamental than one used elsewhere, and was frequently of a different style. Thus it might be Roman while the rest was uncial or minuscule, and it was often Roman or uncial when the rest was Gothic.

52. The words in the text that were first distinguished by capitals were proper names, the names of the Deity, &c.; as is still the case in English. See the selections in § 30. But German printers grew more and more fond of embellishing their pages with the ornamental capitals, and, in spite of frequent protests from the grammarians, the practice was taken up in writing, and, before the end of the 17th century, all nouns were written with a capital initial. In this century most words that could in any way be construed as standing for nouns (for ex., jemand, mancher, alles, &c.) came to be weighted down with capital initials. See § 30, 20. The use of a long or capital i in writing ihr, ihm, ihnen, &c. (§ 19) was specialized to distinguish these forms when used for the second person and was extended more or less to other pronouns designating the second person, § 54, 5. The height of absurdity was reached in the practice (still to be observed in some devotional books) of distinguishing such words as Gott from ordinary nouns by the use of two capitals: GOtt,

der HErr, § 30, 14. Gottsched championed the cause of the capitals and made a great splutter at those that would have relieved the language of them.

53. Jakob Grimm was the most radical opponent of capitals, discarding them except to mark new paragraphs or lines of thought and to designate proper names, § 30, 17. He has been followed by most philologians in the matter of common nouns and pronouns (§ 30, 19), and by the official spellers in the cases of some of the pronouns (§ 55, 4), but the "correct" use of capitals still forms an unnecessary task for the learner. That the frequent occurrence of the fraktur capitals among the Gothic small letters is unharmonious, has been pointed out, § 8 end; and nothing can be more disagreeable than a whole word printed with these purely initial letters: JESUS, HERR, § 30, 11, 13.

RULES

54. A capital letter is now used to begin: —

1) A sentence, usually a line of poetry, and a quotation preceded by a colon. (But not in 's = Es or Das.)

2) Substantives (Hund, Glaube) and words used as substantives (der Reiche, Gutes und Böses, das Nichts, jedem das Seine, das Erhebende, Gedrucktes, Lesen und Schreiben, das Wenn und das Aber, das Abc, Deutsch lernen*), including an adjective used after etwas, viel, &c. (etwas Neues, nichts Gutes). Similarly after - in compounds; see examples in §§ 46 R, 64, 3.

3) Adjectives and numerals following a noun as a cognomen (Karl der Große, Wilhelm der Erste).

4) Adjectives and pronouns in titles (Se. Majestät, die Kaiserliche Post, der Wirkliche Geheimrat), so too in das Schwarze Meer, die Vereinigten Staaten.

* In this, Deutsch is a noun = 'the German language'; but in deutsch sprechen the word is regarded as an adverb.

5) The personal pronouns Sie, Ihrer, Ihnen, and the possessives Ihr, Ihre, Ihr, &c., when these forms are used for the second person (to distinguish them from ſie 'they', ihr 'their', &c.); in letters also the forms of Du and Dein, singular and plural. § 52.

Note. Similarly when the second person plural is used for the singular (Ihr, Euer, Euch), or the third person singular for the second (masc. Er, Seiner, Ihm, Ihn, Sein; fem. Sie, Ihrer, Ihr). For Ein see § 263 N_3.

6) Adjectives derived from the names of persons (die Grimmſchen Märchen, die Homeriſchen Gedichte, die Deuerlichſche Buchhandlung, Luth'er(i)ſch or Luth'(e)riſch § 310, 2), and adjectives in -er from names of places (der Kölner Dom, Schweizer Käſe). See § 55, 2, 3.

55. Capitals are not used in other cases: —

1) Substantives that have practically become other parts of speech: —

(*a*) Prepositions: angeſichts, behufs, kraft, um . . . willen, von . . . wegen, &c.

(*b*) Conjunctions: falls, zumal.

(*c*) Indefinite numerals: ein paar 'a few' (but Paar 'pair'), ein bißchen 'a bit' (but Bißchen 'small bite').

(*d*) Adverbs: morgens, vormittags, &c. (but des Morgens &c., and Sonntags &c.), heute abend, geſternfrüh, &c., anfangs, rechts, teils, einesteils, jedenfalls, &c. (but ſchlimmſten Falls), guterdinge, meinerſeits, zeitlebens, einmal, vielmal(s), diesmal (but das eine Mal, dieſes Mal, viele Male), derart, glücklicherweiſe, &c., bisweilen, zeither, allezeit, gewiſſermaßen, dermaßen, &c. (but über alle Maßen), unterwegs, beizeiten, vorderhand 'for the present', bergauf, jahraus jahrein, durchweg, ohnegleichen, von altersher, zurecht, beileibe nicht, heutzutage.

(*e*) Parts of verbal phrases: achtgeben and ich gebe acht &c., teilhaben, handhaben, ſtandhalten, haushalten, hohnlachen, hohn-

ſprechen, preisgeben, ratſchlagen, ſtattfinden, teilnehmen, wahrnehmen, von nöten* and im ſtande ſein, in ſtand and zurecht ſetzen, zu ſtande and zu ſtatten kommen, überhand nehmen, zu leide and zu liebe thun, zu nutze and zu nichte machen, zuwege bringen, von ſtatten gehen, zu teil werden, in acht nehmen, außer acht laſſen.* — Similarly leid (and not, weh) thun, freund (and feind, gram, ſchade, ſchuld, willens) ſein, es iſt mir angſt (so leid, not, wehe, wohl), es geſchieht mir recht, es iſt mir einerlei.

Thus Ich nehme dran teil, but Ich nehme keinen Teil dran. Das ließ er außeracht but Das ließ er außer aller Acht. Wann findet das ſtatt? but Ein gutes Wort findet eine gute Statt. Iſt er's nicht imſtande? but Das Haus iſt in wohnlichem Stande. Es that ihm leid but Er that ſich ein Leid an.

Note. When the elements of such phrases are supposed to retain their individual values, the substantive retains the capital: Folge leiſten, Rede ſtehen, Takt halten, Trotz bieten, Platz greifen, im Stiche laſſen, im Begriff ſein, zu Füßen fallen, zu Mute ſein, zu Werke gehen, &c. But this distinction is very difficult, see § 53.

2) Adjectives that are derived from the names of persons, but have come to have a secondary, more general, meaning:

---

* The official spellers are inconsistent and self-contradictory as to these words. P at first favored writing preposition and noun as one word and the verb separately (and was followed by Bd) but later, along with W, decided to separate the preposition too in most cases; and Sx prefers this spelling; still in some cases not even the verb is separated. P & W prescribe and Sx recommends in acht nehmen, außer acht laſſen, zu nutze machen, im and außer ſtande ſein, in ſtand ſetzen, zu ſtande kommen, von ſtatten gehen, zu ſtatten kommen, zu teil werden, similarly W (P is silent) zu liebe and zu leide thun, and P (W here joins Bd) von nöten ſein; while in all these Bd prescribes and Sx allows inacht nehmen, zunutze machen, &c. But P, W, Sx, & Bd prescribe zurecht machen or ſetzen (but the Bd word-list prescribes zurechtlegen -kommen -weiſen), and W & Sx (P silent) prescribe zuwege bringen, while Bd prefers zuwegebringen. W prescribes (P silent) zunichte machen, Sx prefers zu nichte machen, while Bd prefers zunichtemachen -gehen &c. On the other hand, P & Sx prescribe überhandnehmen, W & Bd überhand nehmen, B has, with P, überhandnehmen, zu ſtande kommen, zu teil werden, but is silent as to the others.

eine lutherische Gemeinde, ein mohammedanischer Fürst, homerisches Gelächter. Cf. § 54, 6.

3) Adjectives and adverbs derived from the names of countries or districts: die englische Sprache, die römischen Legionen, die deutsche Flotte, deutsch sprechen (§ 54, 2 ff), die rheinischen Städte, die badischen Schulen, schweizerisch but Schweizer, § 54, 6.

4) All the pronouns and numerals not specified in § 54, 3, 4, 5, thus: der, dieser, jener, derjenige, derselbe, einer, keiner, jeder, jeglicher, beide, die beiden, der nämliche, der eine, der erste, der erstere, der zweite, der letzte, alle, sämtliche, einige, etliche, mehrere, viele, einzelne, wenige, andere, verschiedene, die andern, die übrigen, man, jemand, niemand, jedermann, mancher, etwas, nichts, einiges, anderes, viel, mehr, wenig, das meiste, das geringste, das wenigste, das andere, folgendes, nachstehendes, obiges, alle beide, alle drei, der erste beste, jeder beliebige, kein anderer, niemand anders, alles mögliche, alles andere, nichts anderes, mancherlei, vielerlei. So too: in allem, vor allem, unter anderem, im folgenden, im übrigen, bei or trotz alledem, im vorstehenden, fürs erste, zum letzten, bis ins einzelnste, nicht im mindesten. Similarly: alle neun werfen, auf allen vieren kriechen, mit sechsen fahren, zu zweien gehen. In Er ist immer noch der alte, der alte = derselbe; but in Es ist der Alte, Alte = 'old man'.

5) Adjectives and adverbs, such as: groß und klein, gleich und gleich, arm und reich, jung und alt, hoch und nieder, durch dick und dünn, über kurz oder lang, von klein auf, auf or zu deutsch; schönstens, frühestens, aufs beste, aufs schönste, aufs neue, am or zum besten (but zum allgemeinen Besten), mit nächstem, vor kurzem, ohne weiteres 'at once', bei weitem, bis auf weiteres 'for the present', von neuem, seit langem, im allgemeinen, im ganzen, im ganzen und großen, im großen ganzen, im wesentlichen, insbesondere, um ein bedeutendes, nicht im geringsten, unterm heutigen (= heute), des nähern, des öftern,

in gutem or im guten, es ist mein eigen, es ist das richtige (= richtig), es ist das beste (= am besten), es scheint das vernünftigste; sein möglichstes thun, guthaben (so -heißen, -sagen), zu eigen geben, feilbieten, feilhalten, wahrsagen, zum besten haben, zu gute halten, vorlieb nehmen, beim alten lassen, den kürzern ziehen, ins reine bringen, im reinen or im klaren sein, im stillen bleiben, im trüben fischen. But Ich bin auf das Äußerste gefaßt. Zu guter Letzt or zuguterletzt. Im Freien sein. Wir sprechen von Altem und Neuem. Sei nicht bloß im Großen treu!

Chapter v

PUNCTUATION*

56. The **Period** is used at the end of declarative sentences, and of headings of chapters and the like, also generally after abbreviations and the ordinal numerals. König Friedrich Wilhelm III. [= der Dritte], welcher am 16. [= sechzehnten] November 1797 seinem Vater auf dem Throne gefolgt war, hielt, wie dieser, an der Neutralitätspolitik fest. z. B. = zum Beispiel, u. s. w. = und so weiter. But the period is generally omitted after abbreviations of the decimal system: m = Meter, mm = Millimeter, cbm = Kubikmeter; also after ℳ = Mark (M. = Meile) and ₰ = Pfennig, § 15, 2. Many (for ex., W) use the period after I, II, &c. only *before* substantives. For the decimal point, see § 57, 1 N 5.

57. The **Comma** (now , formerly /, § 30) is used: —

1) Between co-ordinate parts of a sentence, but not generally before und unless the co-ordinate parts be clauses. Ich habe lyrische, epische und dramatische Gedichte verfaßt; ich habe über Kunst, über Philosophie, über Theologie, über Politik geschrieben — Gott verzeih's! But Die Kunst ist lang, und kurz ist unser Leben. Cf. also the sentences in the following §§.

Note 1. When co-ordinate *clauses* have one or more elements in common, no comma is used before und in its ordinary meaning (Vertraue auf Gott und nicht auf Menschen), unless it is intended thereby to set them off for separate consideration (Drinnen waltet die züchtige Hausfrau, und herrschet weise im häuslichen Kreise, und lehret die Mädchen, und wehret den Knaben, &c.); but one is generally used before aber, doch,

* On the basis of the rules in W; the others in G do not treat the subject of punctuation.

and und when = aber (Der Abend war schön, aber etwas kühl). Though a comma is generally used before und when there is no common element in the clauses (Ich erzählte ihm die Geschichte, und dann kam er gleich mit, see also und das in 6 below), it may be omitted in short sentences (Die Fische springen und das Wasserhuhn taucht unter).

Note 2. Nor is a comma needed before oder, the comparatives als 'than', 'as', and wie 'as', 'like', teils — teils, bald — bald, sowohl — als auch, entweder — oder, weder — noch, &c. Es muß biegen oder brechen. Ich bin besser als man denkt. Ich liebe ihn wie meinen Bruder. Du mußt entweder steigen oder sinken. Bald läßt er da bald dort ein Stück. But a comma is used (6 below) before als 'when' (and 'as' = 'when'), wie 'when', 'how', and the parenthetic 'as', also before als daß.

Note 3. Distinguish between Ein kräftiger junger Mann and Ein junger, kräftiger Mann, in which latter the adjectives are co-ordinate.

Note 4. The comma is not needed in Haupt- Zeit- und Eigenschaftswörter and the like, but some use it.

Note 5. In German the comma rather than the period is used as a decimal point, or separatrix; but the decimal figures are generally made smaller: 2,37 Pfd. or 2,37 Pfd. = 2.37 lb.

2) Before and after parenthetic statements (cf. § 62 and § 63): Und ihr, ich hoff' es, steht mir willig bei.

3) Similarly before and after vocatives and such exclamations as do not require an exclamation point, and after ja, nein, freilich, nun, and similar words beginning a sentence: Ja, ja, man muß das Seine beisammenhalten. Ei, Vater, was siehst du so bös? Nun, es sind doch tüchtige Leute unter ihnen.

4) Before and after appositives, and adjectives and participles that follow their nouns as appositives: Den Oberbefehl über die kaiserliche Armee übernahm des Kaisers Sohn, Ferdinand, König von Böhmen und Ungarn. (Not so when Sohn &c. are often used with a name and become almost a part of it: Mein Sohn Ferdinand und deine Schwester Marie.) Die Kirche ist's, die heilige, die hohe, die zu dem Himmel uns die Leiter baut. So before a participial clause that follows the main verb: An dem Ufer steh' ich lange Tage, das Land der

Griechen mit der Seele ſuchend. But Solches bei mir denkend ſchlief ich ein.

5) Before pronouns and adverbs that, somewhat like appositives, repeat the idea of the preceding word or words: Der Fröner, der ſucht in der Erde Schoß. Könnt ihr es erraten, dieſes Rätſel? Vorhin, da bracht' der Deodat des Kaiſers Geſundheit.

6) Before all subordinate clauses, including restrictive relative clauses, where no comma is used in English. (But see §§ 58–9.) Zanken Sie nicht, daß das verlangte Luſtſpiel heute nicht mitkommt; es fiel mir erſt ſpät ein, es zu ſuchen, und das habe ich bald eine halbe Stunde ohne Erfolg gethan. Die Kinder, die mit der Aufgabe fertig ſind, dürfen nach Hauſe gehen. Mancher lügt, um die Strafe von ſich abzuwenden, ohne zu bedenken, daß er damit aufs neue ſündigt. See also the examples in § 56.

Note. But infinitive clauses with zu do without the comma in short sentences and where no misunderstanding could thereby arise, for ex., when the zu-clause precedes. Er hoffte zu ſiegen. Mein Wort zurückzunehmen habe ich keinen Grund. Ich denke in die Stadt zu gehen, but Ich denke dran, in die Stadt zu gehen according to 4 above. And such a comma must not break up a relative clause like Deine Aufträge, welche ich hoffe zu deiner Zufriedenheit ausgeführt zu haben &c

7) In cases where the semicolon would usually be required, were not the sentence too brief: Beſtelle dein Haus, denn du mußt ſterben. Der Geiſt iſt willig, aber das Fleiſch iſt ſchwach.

58. The **Semicolon** (now ; formerly ;) is used (1) instead of the comma when the latter would be too weak or must be used as a subordinate mark of punctuation; (2) instead of the period when this would too distinctly separate members that have some definite connection. It often stands before denn, aber, doch, &c., but see also § 57, 7: Dem Pflanzenreiche gehören an: Eichen, Buchen, Tannen; Apfel- Birn-

Kirschbäume; Weizen, Gerste, Hafer. Der Bau, in dem der König schläft, besteht aus Holz; Stroh und Pech liegt zwischen den Wänden und unter den Dielen. Dies ist aber auch alles, was ich Ihnen heute schreiben kann; denn über den Arrangements ist mir der Kopf ganz wüste geworden. Cf. examples under § 57, 1 and 6. (3) In such cases as § 59, 3, (cf. note there): Es ist ein stilles und einfaches pedantisches Leben im Hause; die Mutter schüttelt den Kopf über Gellerts schwedische Gräfin, die Tochter liest entzückt in Kleists Frühling und singt am Klavier vom Veilchen und vom Lamm der Flur, und der Vater trägt die Lieder des Grenadiers in der Tasche. Cf. § 66, 1, last example.

59. The **Colon** is used: —

1) Before a direct quotation. Da sagte der erste: „Du könntest mir einen Gefallen thun."

Note. The word of saying, or the like, is often omitted (see § 66, 1, first example), and such sentences border on those under 3, below; similarly: Nach etlichen Tagen erhielt ich wieder ein gerichtliches Schreiben: die Privatklage war aufgehoben.

2) Before an explanatory appositive, especially if it consists of a series that stands in apposition to some preceding general word or gives examples of a principle stated. Cf. the first example in § 60. Bonifacius errichtete im Jahre 741 vier neue Bistümer: Würzburg für Ostfranken, Buraburg für Hessen, Erfurt für Thüringen, Eichstädt für den Nordgau an der Grenze Bayerns. Aus Luthers Sprache schöpften bewußt oder unbewußt die ersten deutschen Grammatiker: Fabian Frangk (1531), Albert Ölinger (1573), Johannes Clajus (1578). Westgerm. *ai* wird zu *ā*: *āð* Eid, *stān* Stein, *hāt* heiß, &c.

3) Before a clause that is to be regarded as the result or as explanatory of what precedes, though this relation is not expressed by any conjunction: Gewiß war Grabbe eine ganz krankhafte Natur, und auch unter günstigeren Umständen wäre er

nicht anders geworden als wir ihn heute kennen: er wußte sich nicht zusammenzuhalten wie sein Vorbild, Heinrich von Kleist, er besaß gar kein Gefühl für die Form, und so floß ihm der reichste Stoff auseinander oder wirrte sich zu einem Knäuel.

Note. But in such cases it is now more common to use the semicolon (cf. § 58, 3).

4) Occasionally as a means of separating clauses whose members are subdivided by semicolons.

5) To indicate a correlative or oppositional relation between words, &c.: Auch kommen Reime wie ſtach : Tag und Sack : Tag vor.

60. The **Interrogation Point** is used after a direct question, even if that is an incorporated part of a sentence: Auf die Frage: Was iſt Wahrheit? giebt es verſchiedene Antworten. Only one ? is used with two or more closely connected questions: Iſt hier ein Wunder geſchehen, oder haben mich meine Augen getäuſcht? See also § 61 N.

The interrogation point is used after an indirect question only when it stands by itself and is thus equivalent to a direct question: Ob ſie an Bergfeldts Emil dachte? But Er fragt, ob das unſer Ernſt ſei.

61. The **Exclamation Point** is used after an exclamation or a statement that the writer wishes to call special attention to; in general it is used in German more lavishly than in English, being often employed even after the address at the head of a letter: Ach! die Gattin iſt's. O wie ſchön iſt dieſe Welt! Wenn es die Königin wäre! Das hab' ich dir zum letzten Mal geſagt! Leben Sie recht wohl! „Ich werde mir doch von einem Knecht nicht ſollen befehlen laſſen!" ſagte Joggeli. Paſſagiere dahin ſteigen hier um (wenn der Anſchluß nicht paßt, dann beſſer in Jena!), deshalb kurzer Aufenthalt!

Lieber Freund!

Dein Brief vom &c. Cf. also example in § 57, 1.

Only one exclamation point is used with several closely connected exclamations: Ziehet, ziehet, hebt! Sie bewegt ſich, ſchwebt!

Note. An exclamation point may be added to an interrogation point to express astonishment, indignation, or the like: Wie aber, wenn die Schüler die ſchönen, ſtimmhaften ſ in ſäuſeln oder rieſeln nicht zum Ausdruck bringen und weiße wie weiſe oder reißen wie reiſen ſprechen?!

62. The **Dash** is used (1) to indicate a dramatic break in a sentence (see example under § 57, 1), and (2), especially in elevated style, in place of the comma (§ 57, 2) or a mark of parenthesis: Endlich ſchaute er mich an mit einem tiefen, abgrundtiefen, flehenden Blick — ich verſtand ihn — und dann ſank ſein Haupt herab auf die Trommel.

By some a prefixed dash is used (3) to indicate a change of situation (of speaker, of point of view, of train of thought) and so may take the place of quotation marks: —

— Rede deutlicher, Alter; wie hat er es gemacht mit deiner Seele? — Er ſchwieg lange, endlich ſprach er: — Warum dies erzählen, ihr Herren?

63. The **Marks of Parenthesis** ( ) are generally used in cases where something not at first intended is thrown in parenthetically, where a synonym or explanation is to be added or a reference made to an authority. They correspond to our ( ) and generally to our [ ]. (Cf. also § 57, 2.)

Ich frage (denn hierüber muß ich vor allem Gewißheit haben): biſt du der Thäter? Die Aſtronomie (Himmels- oder Geſtirnkunde) iſt eine erhabene Wiſſenſchaft. Bis dicht vor dem Erſcheinen hat Hegel noch daran geſchrieben (Hegels Briefe I. 80). So about critical comments inserted in the writing of another, where we use [ ]: Überhaupt bringe ich vielleicht eine Geſellſchaft Männer zuſammen, die Ihnen (So!) fürchterlich genug ſein ſoll.

Remark. A) is often added to a reference to a foot-note, thus *) or †) where we use only * or †.

64. The **Hyphen** (= in German text, sometimes - in Schwabach) is used: —

1) At the end of a line, to connect the parts of a divided word (see the ends of some of the lines below).

2) To represent that part of a word that is common to several, but expressed in but one, or that need not be expressed at all: Vielleicht nirgends kam dies alles so phantasie- und poesievoll wie im Schwaben- und Frankenlande zum Ausdruck. Damit die Kraft durch Inn- und Äußres dringt. Cf. § 57 N 4, and examples in § 35.

Werner bemerkt in seiner Orthographie (1629) S. 61 auch, daß manche für v e r- immer v o r- schreiben.

3) To connect the parts of a compound word that is composed of proper names or of members having equal function, that is particularly long or has as one member but a letter or two (cf. also § 46 N 2 R): —

Die Leipzig-Dresdner Eisenbahn. Mendelssohn-Bartholdy. Meyer-Lübcke. Schleswig-Holstein. Papst-König. königlich-kaiserlich. Elbdampfschifffahrts-Gesellschaft.* Der Einjährig-Freiwillige. Der unser Goethe-Jahrbuch diesmal schmückende Lichtdruck reproduziert eine Zeichnung, welche sich im Goethe-National-Museum vorfindet. Im Laufe des Monats werden Privatdocent Dr. Joh. Walther-Jena [= Dr. Walther aus Jena] über Goethes geologische Studien und Sammlungen, sowie Prof. Dr. Erich Schmidt-Berlin über den Tannhäuser-Mythus sprechen. Zugleich gewann ihn Goethe für die humoristisch-populäre Litteratur des 15ten und 16ten Jahrhunderts. Das Dehnungs-h, das Schluß-s, der S-Laut. A-Dur, C-Moll-Symphonie.

Note. Not only are the words of an important or emphatic sentence sometimes separated by wide spaces, as is done with us; but the letters of an important or a quoted word are often spaced, where we should use italics, see examples in §§ 59, 5, 64, 2 end.

* In such multicompounds the hyphen separates only the chief members.

65. The **Apostrophe** is used: —

1) To indicate that one or more letters usually written have been dropped; these letters are generally such as are apt not to be heard in speaking. Ich lieb' ihn, wo iſt's? heil'ger Gott (cf. example under § 57, 1, 2, 4). 's war e'mal 'ne alte Frau. Cf. also § 67, 1.

Note. (*a*) In the contractions of the article or the demonstrative da(r)= with prepositions (ins, beim, drauf, &c., § 114), the apostrophe is not used. (*b*) And so in the case of other words having two forms in common use: Thür(e), König(e)s, dem König(e), unſ(e)re, &c. So, too, in proper names: Goethes, Schillers, no longer Goethe's (as still recommended by Sanders); but see 2 below, &c. (*c*) The =e of the imperative originally belonged only to weak verbs and a few strong verbs with similar presents, but it has now spread to many strong verbs. It is customary to use an apostrophe for an =e dropped from weak verbs and those strong verbs that usually have =e: erbarm' dich, wach' auf, bitt', ſitz', &c.; but even in these, W would do without the apostrophe. (*d*) The spellers prescribe the writing Leſſingſche Fabeln, Voßſche Zeitung, &c., but Leſſing'ſche &c. are still very common and are recommended by Sanders.

2) To indicate the genitive of nouns already ending in *s*; so Voß' Luiſe, Demoſthenes' Reden; but see N *b* above.

66. 1) **Quotation Marks** are used about as in English, but their form varies thus „ " or ,, " less commonly , ' in German text, and ,, " or » « or »« or ‘ ’ in Roman.

Unwillig ſtieß ihn der Herzog von ſich: „Biſt du ein Hund, daß du mir die Füße lecken willſt?" ‚Alle Mann an Bord!', ſchallt der Ruf in der Gefahr.

»Mein Geſchäft«, ſchreibt er ein anderes Mal, »geht gut; ich habe so viel Geld, Gewalt, Verstand, Menschen und Geschick dazu, als nötig ist, und da kann's wohl nicht fehlen«.

2) Some, especially philologians, while using „ " for real quotations, employ ‘ ’ or ‘ ’ for single words or titles, where we do the same or use italics: Formen wie *ebani* ‘Ebene’,

ebanōn 'ebnen', kamen hauptsächlich durch Analogiebildung zu stande. Der Name 'Deutſch' gilt &c. Schließt ſich 'Egmont' ſeinem Urſprunge nach an den 'Götz', ſo wurzeln 'Iphigenie' und 'Taſſo' ganz in den Weimarer Verhältniſſen.

3) Sometimes the colon is regarded as sufficient (Gott ſprach: Es werde Licht!), or a dash (§ 62, 3), or spacing (§ 64, 3 N), is employed.

Note. When a quotation occurs within another, the usual marks may be employed or they may be doubled: „Das ſind die Flitter Pucks, die er neben meinen Glanz hängt, als wollte er ſagen: „„Nun, ſind meine Gaben nicht doch ſchöner?““ Aber ſchnell ſind ſie verronnen“.

67. The **Asterisk** is used (1) to mark the omission of a letter or word; (2) to refer to a footnote, when it is usually accompanied by a), thus *), § 63 R; (3) as a sign of excellence, especially in guide books; (4) to designate, in philological books, a reconstructed or theoretical form.

68. The **Dagger** is used (1) to refer to a footnote, § 63 R; (2) as a sign of death (because of its resemblance to a cross): † 16. Jan. 1853 = geſtorben 16. Jan. 1853. † Stephan Ludwig Roth = 'The late Stephan Ludwig Roth.'

Book ij

PHONOLOGY

Chapter j

PHONETICS

69. The PHONOLOGY of a language is that part of its grammar which states and classifies the sounds of the language; in the phonology of an historical grammar, the development of the sound-system is also given.

70. PHONETICS is the science of speech sounds. The first attempts at phonetic analysis were naturally directed toward the audible effects of the sounds, hence the terms "liquids", "hard", "soft", &c. When phonetics rose to the dignity of a science, it was the physiological and mechanical, or the organic, side that received most attention; hence the terms and classifications now in vogue. The scientific study of the acoustics of human speech has only begun and is beset with much difficulty. An acquaintance with the elements of phonetics is essential to a correct understanding of the sounds of a language, and is of great assistance in acquiring them.

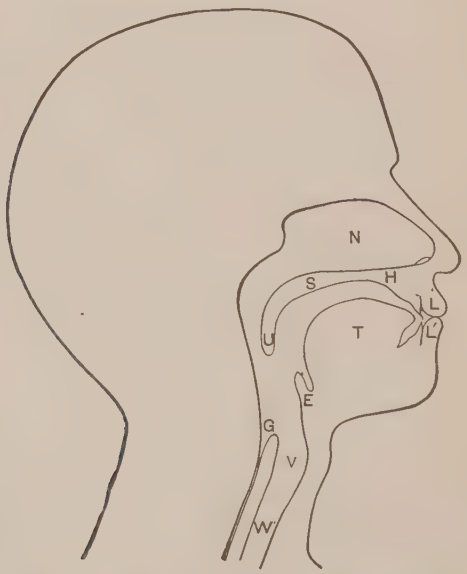
71. THE ORGANS OF SPEECH

The upper part of the windpipe is termed the **Larynx** see figures in § 96. Here are two elastic membranes called

---

Bell: *Vocal Physiology and Visible Speech.* Brandt: *German Grammar*, 4th ed., 1888. Bremer: *Deutsche Phonetik*, 1893. Grandgent: *German and English Sounds*, 1892. Lloyd: *Speech Sounds* (in "Phonetische Studien"), 1890–2. Meyer: *The Organs of Speech*, 1882. Paul: *Principien der Sprachgeschichte*, 2d ed., 1886. Sievers: *Phonetik*, 4th ed., 1893; and *Phonetik* in Paul's Grundriss I., 1889. Storm: *Englische Philologie* I., 2d ed., 1892. Sweet: *Primer of Phonetics*, 1890. Techmer: *Phonetik*, 1880. Trautmann: *Die Sprachlaute*, 1884–6. Vietor: *Phonetik*, 3d ed., 1893–4. *Phonetische Studien.*

the **Vocal Chords.** They are attached to the interior walls of the larynx and at the back to two movable cartilages called the Arytenoids. The opening between the chords is called the **Glottis**, more specifically the chord glottis, and that between the cartilages the cartilage glottis. Above the larynx is the soft body called the Epiglottis, which, on the approach of food, covers the glottis so that the food will pass into the gullet and not into the windpipe. The passage between the larynx and the mouth passage is the **Pharynx.** The pharynx, the mouth passage, and the nasal passages may collectively be called the **Delta.** The roof of



E = Epiglottis (Kehldeckel); G = Gullet (Speiseröhre); H = Hard Palate (harter Gaumen); LL' = Lips (Lippen); N = Nasal Passage (Nasenhöhle); S = Soft Palate (weicher Gaumen); T = Tongue (Zunge); U = Uvula (Zäpfchen); V = place where the Vocal Chords (Stimmbänder) are attached; W = Windpipe (Luftröhre).

the mouth is termed the **Palate** : the front part is hard, being strengthened by bone, while the back part is soft and movable ; as may be felt with the finger. The soft palate ends in a pendulous body called the **Uvula** ; it may be seen with the aid of a hand-glass. The remaining organs of speech are more or less in sight and so are familiar.

THE PHYSICAL BASIS OF SPEECH

Breath

72. The essential element of ordinary speech is breath, which is directed against the organs of speech in breath impulses.

Note 1. Rarely a word is spoken with inspiration (compare a sob) instead of expiration : this may happen in the case of ja *yes*, nein *no*, and some exclamations, for example, da ! *there !* and *my !*

Note 2. Sounds may be made by the organs of speech without inspiration or expiration, for ex., by suddenly separating two moist surfaces : the lips — a kiss ; the front of the tongue and the palate — the expression of mild disapproval spelled *tut ;* the back of the tongue and the palate — a cluck. A well trilled *r*, a *t*, &c. may be made while the mouth passage is entirely closed at the back by the raised tongue, the air back of the tip of the tongue being forced out by the rising of the middle of the tongue, and this may be done even when the lips are closed.

Voice

73. The chief phonetic activity of the breath is the production of voice. This is the sound produced by the vibration of the vocal chords, §§ 71, 96 *c*. It may be observed by sounding any vowel, or by alternating an *s*-hiss with a *z*, and is much plainer if the ears are stopped. As it cannot come out without passing through and being modified by the resonances of the passages of the delta, it does not occur pure.

Note. When the vibrations of the vocal chords are so slow that they can be distinguished from one another, the sound produced is not called voice but the glottal *r*, § 221, 3. This sound requires less breath-impulse than voice and consequently often takes the place of voice when one is tired, usually at the end of a long vowel, but at times throughout the vowel. An affection of the throat or excessive beer-drinking may cause a temporary or habitual substitution of this trembling [Bierbaß] for voice; it is even affected by some men on the supposition that it is more impressive.

74. (*a*) The loudness of voice depends upon the amplitude of the vibration, and this upon the force of the breath-impulse. (*b*) Its pitch depends upon the rapidity of the vibrations and this upon the elasticity and shortness of the chords; hence the higher pitch of the voices of women and children. The pitch may be raised by stretching the chords and thereby increasing the elasticity, or by limiting the vibration to a part of the chords (falsetto voice, see § 221, 2 R, 3 R 1). (*c*) Like other musical sounds, the voice consists of a fundamental and various over-tones; upon the number and intensity of the latter depends the quality of the voice.

Resonance

75. The passages of the delta act as resonance chambers. The resonance may be animated by the sound produced at the glottis (normally voice, rarely whisper or breath); it may be roused by the sound produced at the place of articulation; or it may be excited in both places at the same time. The character of the sound that strikes the ear therefore depends upon the character of the original sound and upon the shape of the resonance cavity that it excites.

76. In the case of the vowels, there being no local sound other than voice, the resonance is of great importance, § 132. Thus *a* differs from *i* only in resonance; and the same is true of *h* in *ha* and *h* in *hi*, and of the various nasals. The articulation of *ĥ* and χ is almost identical and

so the difference between them is almost wholly one of resonance. On the other hand, *ʃ* and *s* differ also in the character of the local sound, the breath being differently directed against the teeth and the lips; and so do *p* and *k*, in that the organs making the explosions differ sufficiently to give in each case the local sound a different character.

Sonority

77. Sonority, or the force with which a sound strikes the ear, is promoted particularly by voice and is reduced by obstruction. The most sonorous sounds were early observed and called "vowels"; of these the highest are the least sonorous, hence *i̯ u̯* (unsyllabic *i u*, §§ 146 N, 204 N 1) were called "semi-vowels". The next most sonorous sounds are called "the sonorous consonants" or "vowel-like consonants"; the least sonorous consonants are the voiceless stops.

ANALYSIS OF SPEECH

78. Our analysis of our speech is very imperfect, in fact the vast majority of people would never make any conscious analysis at all were it not forced upon them in learning to read. Moreover, the analysis thus made is often an erroneous one: the written word is not a true picture of the spoken word, but one imagines it is and that he speaks as he writes. And when he discovers that he does not, he imagines that he is wrong and the writing right. The analysis that our writing shows, was originally imperfect, and has become more so because of the changes the language has undergone, §§ 24 &c.

79. The analysis of human speech is by no means an easy matter. Just how much shall be regarded as one sound? and How much divergence may a sound present and yet be regarded as the same sound? are difficult questions,

and depend for their answers largely upon practical considerations. That various and inconsistent answers have been given need not cause surprise.

80. When a sentence is spoken, the organs of speech pass through an infinite series of changes of position, during each of which more or less sound is produced. In some positions the organs of speech remain, if for only a minute space of time, and the sound is recognized by the ear and is called a **Sound.** Through the intervening positions they pass with lightning rapidity and the ear usually fails to perceive the sound produced; such a transition sound (or series of sounds) is called a **Glide.**

81. A syllable consisting of two or more vowels is sometimes more or less correctly analyzed into its elements, at others it is regarded as a sort of unit and called a diphthong or a triphthong. A **Diphthong** (§ 146) usually consists of two vowels (one syllabic and the other not) and an intervening glide; but it may consist of one vowel and a glide. The unsyllabic part (often indicated by a subordinate ̯) is usually short, but it may be long, for ex., Au! *aū* as an expression of pain.

82. In Perle one first closes the lips, then keeps them closed, and afterwards opens them; as the sounds produced during these stages usually accompany one another, they are regarded as a unit and we speak of "the sound *p*" and call it a **Stop,** § 149. We usually regard the two consonants in Papa as the same, but only the stressed one is aspirated, § 149 N. An **Aspirate** is generally regarded as a unit; and this is often the case even after the breath glide develops (§ 149 ft) into a fricative cognate with the stop, the couple being called an **Affricate**, for ex., *pf* in Pfund.

83. Sounds often vary according to their neighborhood (§ 119), but such variation is frequently ignored. For example, we do not usually distinguish between the *k*'s in Kien and Kuh, though they are made some distance apart, § 205 N.

We begin and hold t in Natter, Sattel, and hatten alike, but we end it differently in each case. The first is exploded at the tip of the tongue, the second at the side, and the last not through the mouth at all but in the pharynx and so through the nose, § 153, 2. It would, therefore, more correctly be written *tt*, that is, half front stop and half nasal stop. So in Akt we may have a distinct *k* + a *t*, but we usually have only the first half of a *k* and the second half of a *t*; in Hände the point of the tongue does not drop at the end of *n* (as it would if a vowel followed) but remains up for the *d*; similarly in kam mit, Bettdecke, seitdem, knapp bezahlt, grob behandelt, &c.; cf. § 157, 2 & § 223 N 5.

SYLLABLES

84. Of the sounds heard some have greater prominence than others: this may be due to (*a*) greater length, or duration, of the sound, §§ 102–3; (*b*) superior sonority of the sound, § 77; (*c*) higher pitch of the sound, § 101; (*d*) higher pitch of the voice, § 74 *b*; (*e*) greater breath-impulse, or stress, § 100. When the prominence of a sound over that of its immediate neighbors is due to (*b*) or (*e*), we recognize it as forming a syllable; when the prominence of a sound over that of another prominent one is due to (*d*) or (*e*), we perceive it as accent. Accent will be treated in a separate chapter, § 244 &c.

Sonoric and Dynamic Syllables

85. In such a word as Hand *hant* there is the very sonorous sound *a*, the less sonorous *n*, and the very unsonorous *h* and *t*. Arranged as they are in this word, the sounds present but one prominence of sonority, namely at *a*, which may be represented thus ⋮ , and the word is felt to be monosyllabic. But the same sounds may be otherwise

arranged, for example, as in hatten *hatn*, that is, ⋮:⋮, in which the two very sonorous sounds are separated by a less sonorous one, and the word is therefore felt to be dissyllabic even if it be uttered with but one breath-impulse. Syllables due to prominence of sonority may be called **Sonoric Syllables.**

Note 1. Any sound by itself is syllabic: O!, M! (an expression of satisfaction), and hisses like Ss! Sch! In a group of sounds the most sonorous is syllabic: this is usually a vowel (Hand), often a sonorous consonant (Hayden), sometimes a spirant (St! Pst!), rarely a stop between other stops (the *t* of *pract'cally*).

Note 2. Minor prominences are generally not noticed: thus, to most persons such a word as Netz *nets* is monosyllabic though the unsonorous *t* really breaks the word into two sonoric syllables.

86. A word like gehen may be pronounced with one breath-impulse and is then monosyllabic = *gēn*; or with two, a heavy one and a light one, and is then dissyllabic = *gē'ən* or *gē'·n*. Such syllables may be called **Dynamic Syllables.** The word hatte may be pronounced with one breath-impulse and then has two sonoric syllables, or with two breath-impulses, and then its two syllables are dynamic syllables as well as sonoric syllables.

Remark. If the new breath-impulse begins after an intervening consonant has begun, the consonant is said to be doubled, or geminated, § 156.

87. In German, as in English, the syllable following an unstressed syllable or a long stressed syllable is a dynamic syllable: ge=bracht', he=rein'; Gā'be, Hän'de, hei'lig; that following a short stressed syllable is usually a sonoric syllable: Gal'le, Gaf'fer, hät'ten, &c., § 85.

Note. (*a*) Dialectically (especially in Switzerland and on the Slavic border) a dynamic syllable is produced after short syllables too. (*b*) On the other hand, in parts of Germany a syllable consisting of *ə*, of *ɔ* + a sonorous consonant (or of a syllabic sonorous consonant, § 187, 2 N 5), or of a weak suffix (like =ig, =isch, &c.) is only a sonoric syllable, whether the preceding syllable is long or short.

Syllabic Limits

88. 1) When a consonant causes its more sonorous neighbors to divide into two sonoric syllables (§§ 85, 87), it forms the boundary between them, or, we may say, the boundary lies in the consonant: hatten *hăt·n*, hat er *hăt·r*, etc.

2) When, however, a new syllable is formed by a new breath-impulse (§§ 86, 87), the new syllable begins when the new breath-impulse does.

89. When *one consonant* separates the syllables, the new impulse usually begins with the consonant. In German and English this normally occurs only after long stressed syllables and weak syllables, § 87.

Note 1. (*a*) Etymological consciousness often interferes: er=achten, ver=alten. (*b*) Still it yields in many familiar words and groups, esp. if the consonant is sonorous (§ 149, 2 *b*) and precedes the stress: he=rauf', hi=nein', da=raus', wa=rum', wo=run'ter, vo=rü'ber, wiede=rum', vo=llen'den, vie=lleicht', a=llein', ei=nan'der, woh=lan', Frie'de=nau', in Acht '*t-năχt*', am Ende '*ă-mĕn'də*, gute=nA'bend, rarely in compounds: O'=bacht', He'=bam'me, Kel'le=raſ'ſel, § 154, 2. (*c*) So, too, in Middle and South Germany in übe=rall', e=ro'bern, e=rin'nern, Be=rein', and in South Germany in many more.

Note 2. (*a*) Compounds (for ex., lieb=äugeln with *b* = *p*, § 178, 2, Zug=anker with *g* = *χ* or *k*, §§ 194, 1 *b*, 198, 2) generally show a marked contrast to (*b*) derivatives (for ex., die=biſch, zu=gig, Lo=ſung, etc.) and (*c*) conglomerates like those in N 1 *b*. Cf. § 91 N 1.

Note 3. A voiced consonant before elided final =e, regularly passes to the vowel of a following word only in the case of a verb and a weak personal pronoun: hab' ich *hā'biχ*, hab' es *hā'bəs*, werd' ich *vĕr'diχ*, käm' ich *kĕ'miχ* (like kam es *kā'məs*), leſ' ich *lĕ'niχ*, also poetic der Löw' iſt *lö'vist* but werd' immer *vĕrt 'ĭm·r*, hab' alles *hāp 'ăləs*, § 108, 2. And so in Hab' und Gut, Lieb' und Luſt, Freud' und Leid, Aug' und Ohr, most Germans have *p*, *t*, &c.

90. This division is also generally followed in the pronunciation of Latin and other foreign languages and so in adopted words: pro=vi=ſo=riſch, Hy=po=te=nu=ſe, Me=tho=de, Angli=cismus.

Thus such vowels become long when stressed, § 141, 138 N 2, and narrow (§ 135) vowels remain narrow when unstressed, though short, § 144 N 2.

Note. Etymological feeling may prevent this (§ 126, 2 end); thus usually with in- ſyn-: Inundation with ĭ not i, Synode with ĭ̈ not ü; sometimes with ſub-: Subordination pronounced zu-*bor-* or *zŭp-or-*, § 135 end.

91. 1) When *more than one consonant* intervenes, the new impulse and syllable usually begin with the last consonant: ſchlech-te, Büch-ſe. But: —

2) Affricates (*pf*, *ts*, *tſ*, etc., § 82) usually go to the second syllable: Hŏ-pfen, hĕ-tſen, klă-tſchen; still, the second syllable is often only a sonoric syllable, the division lying in the stop, § 87 N *b*. And

3) (*a*) In derivatives in -er and -ung, a stop usually goes with the following sonorous consonant: Mā-kler, Bĕ-ttler, Bü-ttner, and (with d = *d* not *t*) Han-dlung, Hän-dler. (*b*) So in the South and the East in derivatives in -lein, -lich, -ling, -nis: Kin-dlein, lie-blich, Lie-bling, blin-dlings, Bil-dnis, for *kĭnt-laĭn* &c. (*c*) Similarly, in adopted words, a stop usually goes with the following l or r, § 50, 2: Pu-blikum, Me-trum, Hy-dra, Bi-bliothek; less often before m or n: A-bner, sometimes Aria-dne, Do-gma, Phle-gma, but Rhythmus. So before j and v usage varies: Adverb *'ă-dvĕrp* or *'ăt-vĕrp*, adieu *'ă-djȫ̄* or *'ăt-jȫ̄*, so Advokat, Adjektiv, Adjutant, Adjunkt, and many more.

4) After a sonorous consonant, pf, ſt, ʒ (= *ts*), &c. go to the second syllable: däm-pfen, Kar-pfen, em-pfinden, N 1 *a*, er-ſte, äng-ſtigen, Fen-ſter, zwan-zig *ts βăn-(t)sĭh*.

Note 1. (*a*) Etymological consciousness usually interferes (§ 126, 2 end) in the case of native compounds: ent-ſagen, Hand-arbeit (d = *t*), &c., but the rarer emp- has yielded (§ 91, 4) and one often hears Bekann-(t)ſchaft, Han-(d)ſchuh, &c. (*b*) Derivatives regularly yield (§ 89, N 2): kin-diſch, leben-dig, En-dung, &c. So too ſel-bander.

Note 2. Syncopated forms usually retain the old division: A=bler, bi=ttre, hei=lge, gewe=ſ'ne, &c., § 137 R 2; not so in writing: bitt=re or bit=tre, § 49, 2 end). But cf. § 197, 1 R *c*.

Note 3. The composition of foreign words is generally ignored, § 332: Tran=ſat=tion, In=t(e)reſ'ſe, &c. (still antarktiſch 'ănt-'ărk'tĭſ). Otherwise the rules in § 50, 2, 91, 3 *c*, hold good.

92. A syllable ending in a vowel is an **Open Syllable**, one ending in a consonant is a **Closed Syllable**. § 88 &c.

93. 1) A **Short Syllable** is one that ends in a short vowel: hatte *hă-tə*. A **Long Syllable** is one that contains a long vowel or diphthong, or a short vowel and one or more following consonants: dā, Mai, Laſt, laſ=ten. A single final consonant may pass over to a following word beginning with a vowel (§ 94); in that case the final syllable is short if its vowel is short, hence ăn, wĕg, &c. count as short syllables.

2) The absolute duration of a syllable depends in part on the number and usual length of the sounds it contains (thus the syllable au is shorter than Strauß), in part on the time that can be spared for it and justice be done to the other syllables in the stress-group, § 94 (thus trau decreases in length in trau', trau=rig, Trau=ring, traurige).

94. We fancy that we separate words in speech as we do in print, but most people seldom pause in the midst of what they are saying except to draw breath or reflect; in fact, pausing is so rare that it attracts attention and has come to be used to rouse flagging interest, suggest a new point of view, introduce a new member in a series, &c., § 245 N 1. But our speech falls into **Stress=Groups** containing one heavily stressed syllable usually accompanied by one or more less heavily stressed ones. See § 276.

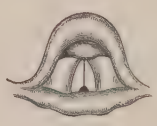
CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS

95. Speech-sounds may be variously divided, inasmuch as there are various points of similarity and of difference.

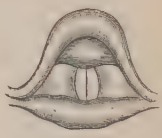
(1) State of the Glottis

96. (*a*) A sound produced when the glottis (§ 71) is open and the breath passing freely through it, is called a **Breathed Sound**; see figure *a*. (*b*) A sound produced

(*a*)



(*b*)



(*c*)

when the chord glottis is closed and the breath is forced through the cartilage glottis (§ 71), is called a **Whispered Sound**; see figure *b*.

> Note. Breathed and whispered sounds may also be called voiceless sounds, and as whispered sounds are rare, the term **Voiceless Sound** is generally understood to mean breathed sound.

(*c*) A sound produced when the glottis is almost closed and the breath is putting the vocal chords in vibration, is called a **Voiced Sound**; see figure *c*.

(2) Manner of Approach of the Organs of Speech

97. A sound varies according as the organs meet and stop the breath or leave a larger or smaller opening, §§ 77, 149. Sounds made in the same way are called **Coördinates.**

(3) Place of Approach

98. It may be the lips, a lip and the opposite teeth, the tongue and the palate, the palate and the back of the pharynx, or the two vocal chords, that approach; §§ 151 &c. Sounds made at the same place are called **Cognates.**

(4) The Passage Used

99. It may be the mouth passage, the nasal passage, or both, §§ 152–3.

(5) The Degree of Force

100. If the breath-impulse (§ 72) is considerable, the sound is called a **Strong** (or Fortis) Sound, if inconsiderable a **Weak** (or Lenis) Sound. This difference in force may be due (*a*) to difference in the original impulse (§ 150 N), (*b*) to the situation of the sound in the breath-impulse (§ 108), (*c*) to the amount of obstruction the breath-impulse meets (for ex., in voice and whisper) before it produces the local sound (§ 150 N 1), (*d*) to the amount of breath spent in making preceding open consonants (§ 150 N 1*b*).

(6) The Pitch

101. Sounds may vary in pitch, either because the length of the vocal chords is made to vary and hence the rapidity of the vibrations (§ 74*b*), or because the shape of the vocal passages varies as the organs of speech are shifted in order to produce the different sounds.

(7) Quantity or Duration

102. A sound may be held for a greater or less time. There are many degrees of quantity or length, but we can usually get on with the designations **Long** and **Short.** At times it is necessary to recognize the greater length of a vowel in a monosyllable like Thal as **Over-long** (§ 93, 2), though we usually call it long; and the quantity of the vowel in such words as Hindu (§ 144 N 4*b*) and warm as **Half-long**, though we usually class the former as long and the latter as short.

103. Consonants, too, may vary in quantity, but German consonants are usually short, §§ 155–6; compare the *l* in hilf with that in *help* and the *n* in Hand with that in *hand*.

CHANGES IN SOUNDS

104. That speech changes and must continue to change is evident to any one who has given serious consideration to the subject. In order that it should not be so, all people must be just alike and must not change, they must have had the same experiences in the past and live now under the same conditions, keeping an even tenor of age, health, and temperament.

1) But all this is not so. To take but one or two of the points mentioned. A community consists of old and young. A child learns the speech of its parents by (conscious or unconscious) observation and imitation. This observation and imitation is more or less imperfect, and the child's speech differs, perhaps imperceptibly, from that of its parents; but such slight deviations, if more or less in the same direction, amount to something in the course of several generations. Besides, people are not alike: a person of nervous temperament speaks more rapidly and with different play of stress and pitch from that of a phlegmatic person; he will execute some articulations more completely than a more sluggish person, and, on the other hand, he will glide over some that a slower speaker will observe. One person gives sudden and unpremeditated expression to the sensation uppermost in his mind, another reflects, and considers his subject, his listener, and the various circumstances, § 272, 279. Each person varies from day to day in health and spirits and so speaks differently at different times.

2) Thus a word or a sound varies in the mouths of different people and in that of the same person. Any individual

word or sound varies according as it happens to appear in this or that kind of sentence, in this or that part of a sentence, under this or that stress or pitch. A word or sound occurring frequently under a certain condition is remembered best as it there occurs, and it may then be reproduced in that way even under other conditions, § 126. Thus nāȝ and genūg occur mostly in unstressed positions, and their long vowels there became shortened (§ 109); now many speakers pronounce them with short vowels even when stressed (§ 144 N 1*a* end).

3) Sound-change is going on constantly, the new form existing side by side with the old. Usually one of them ultimately crowds out the other, but not always. A man's prevailing temperament will give the cast to his average speech; the prevailing temperament of a community (whether a family, a town, or a nation) will give the cast to the average speech of that community. Climate affects health and temperament and thus favors certain tendencies in certain localities.

105. The majority of sound-changes, however distinct when complete, are due to conditions of intonation, accent, and rhythm — things vague and not easily observed and measured; and almost all sound-changes are traceable, either ultimately or immediately, to temperament and mental fibre, which in turn are the result of inheritance and surroundings. For practical purposes we may, however, classify sound-changes as **Phonetic** and **Psychological**: the first, if the immediate cause of the change lies in one of the physical conditions of the word or sentence, that is, the stress or pitch falling on it, the time allowed it, the character of its neighbors; the second, if the change is due to the mental associations aroused by the meaning or form of the word. Those changes that are not yet satisfactorily explained, we can for the present designate as **Spontaneous**, § 130.

PHONETIC CHANGES

106. Phonetic changes are gradual, progressing through innumerable imperceptible stages. They may be most conveniently classified according to their causes, though in some cases more than one cause is present, § 105.

Changes Due to Stress, Pitch, and Time

Pitch

107. Raising the pitch during the pronunciation of a vowel, gives that vowel a different character; if the vowel frequently occurs with this high pitch, the ear becomes accustomed to it and, should the pitch in time be reduced, preserves the new vowel quality by compensatory change in the position of tongue or lips. For gradation, see § 117.

Unvoicing

108. 1) The breath-impulse is soon spent: in such a word as English *bad* the impulse gets so weak that it can vibrate the vocal chords only half through the final *d*, which thus closes voiceless but weak, § 100*b*. If the task of vibrating the chords be given up with the end of the vowel, the final consonant is voiceless (as in German Bad) and stronger than the old *d* (§ 150 N 1*a*), but weaker than initial t.

2) (*a*) In this way all German final (§ 35 ft) voiced stops and fricatives have become voiceless, though the voiced sound still be written. Thus b, d, g are final and = p, t, ch or k, in Lob, lob=te, Kind, kind=lich, Hand=arbeit, Tag, täg=lich, König (but not in Lo=bes, die=bisch, Ta=ge, kin=disch, Könige, nor in ü=bler < übeler, &c., § 91 N 2). Similarly when final =e is elided: ich hab' dir, ich werd' mich, ich hab's gesagt, &c. For hab' ich &c., see § 89 N 3. (*b*) In various parts the sonorous consonants and even unstressed vowels (especially *ə*) tend to become more or less voiceless when final,

§ 132 N 2. Similarly unstressed syllables like ge-, be-, -ig, -icht, -es, es, der, den, &c., are apt to be whispered, or weakly breathed § 100, and not voiced, § 96, cf. *to* in *to-day*, *to-gether*, *I want to go*, &c.

Shortening and Lengthening

109. The syllable with most stress usually gets most time, and syllables less heavily stressed get less. Thus unstressed vowels become short, and weakly stressed vowels tend to shorten: OHG *scrī'bā'ri* > *scrī'ba're* > *scrī'bæ're* > *scrī'ber* > NHG Schrei'ber. See also § 142 & N *a*.

110. (*a*) In stressed open syllables a vowel is apt to lengthen, §§ 137, 1, 141*a*: *gĕ-ben* > gēben, *tă-ge* > Tā-ge, Pō-len but pŏl-niſch, ſchlā-gen but Schlăcht. (*b*) In a stressed closed syllable a long vowel is apt to become short before voiceless consonants, §§ 137, 1, 141*b*: we still say Ōſtern but usually Ŏſten, ōſtlich, &c. and always Licht, dăchte, &c.; hōch and hōhes but Hŏchzeit, Rāt but in Würtemberg Rătſel, &c. See § 139 N, also § 140.

Narrowing and Widening

111. Vowels that are prolonged ("long vowels") tend to narrowness, § 135, while short vowels do not need this economical adjustment of the organs.

Rounding and Unrounding

112. The back vowels u and o are rounded, and the back vowel a tends when long either to become a front vowel or to acquire rounding (see § 136, § 170 N 1, and cf. IE $\bar{a}$ > G^c $\bar{o}$, and OE $\bar{a}$ > M^{n}E $\bar{o}$), while the back rounded vowels *o* and *u* tend when short, especially if unstressed, to lose their rounding (cf. IE $\breve{o}$ > G^c $\breve{a}$, and OE $\breve{o}$ > M^{n}E $\breve{a}$, at least in the speech of the northern States, while OE $\breve{u}$ also has become unrounded and has more or less approached $\breve{a}$).

Obscuring

113. When time and stress are lacking, the specific tongue position required for a vowel may be incompletely attained; thus, weakly stressed vowels tend to be sounded with the tongue in the neutral position, that is, as *ə* § 187, 1; — but if such a syllable afterwards gets stress, it may get the more energetic articulation of a front or back vowel (as *un* of gewunden, § 117, arose out of *ən* < *·u*). Native unstressed final vowels, as a rule, long ago became e (= *ə*): OHG *erda* > Erde, *hohī* > Höhe, *haso* > Haſe, *faru* > fahre, § 365. In SG dialects this *ə* has generally become silent (§ 187, 1 N 1), as in English. The u of unstressed und often becomes *ə*, and the weak article ein may become (*ə*)*n* (§ 188 R 2); but weakly stressed vowels (other than e) are not generally obscured, § 166 *c*, which is due to the fact that they long retained *some* stress, § 365.

Loss and Insertion of Sounds

114. Vowels and consonants, especially if unstressed, may in rapid speech entirely disappear (in part due to §§ 119, 121): d(a)rauf, i(n de)m, an (da)s, (ich) hab(e da)s Licht umgeworfen, ich hab(e e)s, was haſ(t) d(u den)n?, wer hat (ih)n geſehen?, Brot (u)n(d) Milch, (ei)ne alte Frau, ſo (ei)ne, (Gute)n Abend! (or *nāmt*, § 121), es war einmal ein heiliger Mann, (*'e*)*s wār* (*ə*)*māl ·n heil*(*i*)*g·r man*, das iſ(t) nich(t) mei(n) Vater (§ 231 N 2, § 208, N 2*b*), ſie trink(t) kein Waſſer. In North Germany often Super(inte)ndent, ei(ge)ntlich, or(de)n(t)lich. Some of these — the contractions of prepositions and article and of da(r)- with prepositions — are also good literary forms, § 65 N *a*; and such pronunciations as Mendel(s)ſohn, Mol(t)ke, &c. are established, or at least common, cf. §§ 223 N 5, 156, 3, 121. The other contractions may be heard in the talk of persons whose

education and culture are above criticism; but not all speakers abbreviate to the same extent, and most people are unaware of the degree to which they contract and slur.

115. In this way OHG *geban* > geben *gēbən*, then *gēb·n*, and, with assimilation, *gēb·m* and *gēm* (§ 119), and OHG *habētōn* > MHG *habeten* > hatten *hat·n*. That is, a vowel + a sonorous consonant became a syllabic consonant. § 125.

116. On the other hand, a sonorous consonant, whether syllabic or not, may become vowel + consonant. So dialectic Arabeit for Arbeit (compare *eləm* for 'elm'), and Himmel with distinct e when held in singing, for the usual *him·l*.

Gradation

117. The most important historical phenomenon of this sort is Gradation (German Ablaut). This is a difference of vowel due to a difference of accent and time in the Indo-European period in various forms of a word or in related words; cf. Greek *εἶδον οἶδα ἰδεῖν*. Gradation is very prominent in Germanic languages, particularly in the strong verbs. Moreover, the diversity of vowels is increased by the diversity of neighboring consonants, §§ 119, 120, 123. Thus the gradation '*e / o / no vowel*' appears as 'i / a / u' in winden, wand, gewunden, Winde, Windel, Wand, gewandt, wandern, and by mutation wenden, Wende, &c.; but as 'e / i / a / o' in helfen, half, geholfen, Hilfe, &c. See § 113.

> Note. The term 'gradation' does not designate a simple phenomenon but the result of such processes as are explained in §§ 107 &c.; nor must it be supposed that these processes were all going on at the same time and that gradation reflects the status of stress, pitch, etc. of one definite time, § 118 N.

118. Though usually restricted to the results of Indo-European conditions, the term "gradation" may with perfect propriety be applied to similar phenomena in any language

or period. So *histor'ical / his'tory / his'try les'son*; Grā'zie / grăziös'; zū' / zŭ; mīr' / mĭr / m·r; &c. § 144 N 1.

Note. Here we can easily observe the complications that may arise in the process of time, § 117 N. Old strong *hāve* regularly became *hęiv* in 'behave', and old weak *hăve* became *hæv*; but now this latter is retained only as a strong form of 'have' and has by its side various new weak forms: *həv, ər, v.* Dialectic ŏf and ŭf are not weak forms of strong auf but of the older ūf, of which auf is the regular modern representative (§ 173, 3).

Changes Due to Neighboring Sounds

Remark. Some of the changes most conveniently arranged under this head are, on ultimate analysis, more or less due to one of the preceding causes. See also § 105.

Assimilation

119. If we regard such a word as zwelf as made up of the voiceless stop t + the voiceless fricative ʃ + the voiced fricative w + the vowel e + the voiced l + the voiceless fricative f, we see that in passing, for ex., from ʃ to w, not only must the tongue position and the lip position be changed, but also the state of the glottis. That all these changes might not be made simultaneously should not surprise us; and yet a slight temporal displacement in such a case is the beginning of a change in the character of the sound. If the position of tongue and lips be shifted before the vocal chords are put into vibration, a part at least of the w is voiceless, § 150 N 2; if the tongue position for w be changed to that for e before the lip position has been changed, the vowel will be more or less rounded, that is, it will become ö, and so the word is now sounded and spelled zwölf. In this way sounds gradually assimilate to one another. Assimilation may be mutual: thus, *sk* > *sc* (*c* = palatal *k*) > *sh* (spelled ʃch) > *ʃh* > *ʃ*, the present sound, still spelled ʃch. Cf. also the voicing of medial fricatives, § 223, 1.

Mutation

120. 1) Assimilation may pass on through several sounds, for ex., in mutation (German Umlaut). In such a word as OHG *gasti* the tongue began to assume something of the position of *i* before the *t* was complete, later even before the *s* was finished, and still later while the vowel *a* was being made. Thus *s* and *t* became somewhat palatalized and *a* came to be formed with a tongue position more and more like that of *i*: this it retained, though *s* and *t* in time regained the usual form of *s* and *t*.

2) By mutation we understand, then, the change produced in a vowel by a following vowel or semi-vowel. The high front vowel *i* (or the corresponding semi-vowel *j*) early made a preceding mid-front *e* high, that is, just like itself; and later made preceding back vowels front, that is, somewhat like itself. The *i* (or *j*) has in most cases long since changed to e = ə (§ 187) or disappeared.

Remark.)^{i} is a convenient symbol for *i*-mutation: thus e)^{i} means "e affected by *i*-mutation."

3) Thus e)^{i} > i; a)^{i} at first > e, later ä (§ 32); o)^{i} > ö; u)^{i} > ü; au)^{i} > äu (§ 32): nimmſt nimmt < OHG *nimis nimit*, older *nemis nemit*, but wir nehmen < OHG *nemamēs*, Gaſt pl. Gäſte < MHG *geste* < OHG *gesti*. So hoch but höher, Wurf but Würfel, Haus but Häuſer; also ſengen 'singe', fällen 'fell', &c. < * *sangjan* 'to make sing', &c.; männlich. Cf. English *man men*, *old elder*, *strong strength*, *Wales Welsh*, *drank drench*, *sat set*, *whole heal*, *doom deem*.

Note. (*a*) Mutation has spread by analogy (§§ 126 &c.) to some forms that did not have *i* or *j*: so fällen now has fällte gefällt < *valte gevalt*, cf. nennen nannte &c. (*b*) On the analogy of old derivatives in *-jan* like ſenken, fällen, &c. above, some new ones have been formed with mutation: bäffen < baff, bräunen < braun, &c. (*c*) As mutation frequently appeared in the plural (Gäſte, Lämmer, &c.), it came to be regarded as a sign of the plural, and spread to words whose plural never had *i*: Hämmer, Äpfel, &c.

Loss of Sounds

121. Temporal displacement and consequent assimilation may lead to a loss of a consonant: if in such a word as langes *laŋgəs* the back of the tongue drop just before the soft palate has closed the passage to the nose, no g will be produced; thus medial g became silent after n. So haben *hāb·n* often > *hāb·m* (with half *b* and half *m*) > *hām*; in North Germany sagen *zāγ·n* often > *zāγ·ŋ* > *zāŋ*; and Löwen > *lōm*; so sc (= *sts*) > *ss* or *ts* § 179 *a* R, § 155 R, cf. i(st e)s möglich?, and ltst > *lst* § 231 N 2; and English *of(t)en*, *whis(t)le*, &c. See also § 114.

Excrescency

122. Temporal displacement may also lead to the utterance of an extra consonant, especially a stop: MHG *min(e)re* > minder, English *even(ing)* but Abend, je-mann > jemand, ein(e)s > einst, dialectically anders > anderst; cf. English *against* and vulgar *once* with final *t*. So occasionally in such words as Fel(t)s, Gan(t)s, § 40; but not nearly as commonly as in English. In unstressed endings (unver-sehens, zusehends, § 35) usage varies, some inserting a weak stop, some not, without regard to the spelling.

Changes in Quantity

123. 1) The time spent on one sound may be decreased to the advantage of a neighboring sound, R, p. 80: thus, the stressed vowel before a final r regularly becomes long: bār, ēr, vōr, &c. § 140 *a*; and that before r + consonant very frequently: zārt, wērden, Gebūrt, &c. § 140 *b*.

2) Similarly a glide (§ 80) may become a regular sound; and a vowel or a consonant may be reduced to a glide § 187, 2, or disappear §§ 200 *b*, 154, 1 R.

Dissimilation

124. Unlike sounds next one another tend to assimilate, as has just been shown; similarly sounds slightly separated from one another tend to become dissimilar. This is most apt to happen in adopted words: thus Latin *peregrīnus* appears as Pilgrim, that is, *r–r* > *l–r*, and the cognate *r–n* > *r–m*. Knoblauch is for older Kl-, Ebelsdorf for Ebers-dorf, Barbier is dialectically Balbier, and in parts of the Midland ge- is sounded *jə* if g or k follows: jegangen, jekommen, but gebracht, § 196 R. One of the two sounds sometimes disappears: thus sometimes in so'dern, Ka'ger, Ku'fürſt, ma'ſchieren, Qua'tier, Wü'ttemberg, like occasional English 'no'thern' or 'northe'n', 'fo'ward', 'su'prise', &c.; and in Elektricität, Elaſticität, &c. with c = (*t*)*s*, § 179*b*. One of two adjoining fricatives may be dropped before another consonant: ſech[s]zehn, Sechter MHG *sehter* or *sester* < *sehster*; but it usually becomes a stop, so chs (originally = *χs*) generally > *ks*, § 182.

Metathesis

125. Metathesis, or leaping, is most apt to happen in the case of a sonorous consonant and an adjoining vowel: when such a syllable is weak, being next a more strongly stressed syllable or word, the vowel disappears and the consonant becomes syllabic, § 115; if then, through more stress or slower speech, it resolves into vowel + consonant, the consonant is apt to appear next a cognate consonant. So older German *bresten* > berſten, and compare brennen with Bernſtein. This metathesis is more common in Low German and English (cf. *burn*, *through*, &c. with brennen, durch), and most HG words showing it are of LG origin. Cases like Eſſig < OHG *ęzzīh* < **atīk* < Latin *acētum*, and the NG Kahn < *kane* for SG Nachen (OE *naca*), must have a psychological explanation, § 130.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CHANGES

Analogy

126. 1) The pronunciation of a word may be changed to accord with one that is associated with it in the mind: the stressed vowel of Ta-ge, We-ge, mö-gen, &c. became long by a phonetic principle (§ 110), and now most Germans use the long vowel in Tag, Weg, and mag as well, § 138. MHG *sprăch drăsch* > ſprāch drāſch by analogy to *sprāchen drāschen*. zwelf > zwölf by § 119; now many by analogy to zwölf say ölf for elf. Medial g became silent after n by § 121, and final ng followed the analogy of medial ng, § 209 & N 3.

2) Similarly, mental association often prevents phonetic change: thus, we should expect a long vowel to shorten when in inflection the number of consonants following it, is increased (§ 110 *b*), but this does not often happen, being prevented by the analogy of the forms without the additional consonant, § 139 & N. Cf. also §§ 182 end & R 187, 2 N 4. The struggle between the phonetic and the psychological principles is constantly going on in all languages.

Contamination

127. Analogy may result in contamination, or the blending of two similar words, phrases, or categories. So MHG *ūche* 'toad' and *unc* 'snake' > Unke 'toad' or 'snake'; French *chouette* 'owl' + Uhu 'owl' > Schuhu 'owl'. The past participle of eſſen was ge-eſſen, but when this had contracted to geſſen, the analogy of participles like gegeben led to the present form gegeſſen.

Popular Etymology

128. A specific form of contamination results from mistaken etymologizing. People of all classes indulge, con-

sciously or unconsciously, in mental association of words of similar sound or meaning, and they often change the pronunciation to make it accord with a supposed derivation. Popular etymology more commonly affects foreign and antiquated words, and makes them more like common words. Thus zu guter Letz 'as a farewell (drink or feast)' was confounded with zuletzt 'last' and became zu guter Letzt. The older Sinflut 'universal flood' being confounded with Sünde 'sin', has become Sündflut. French *valise* > MHG *velīs* and this > Veleis (as MHG *mīn* > mein § 188 R_3), but by association with Fell 'hide' and Eisen 'iron', it has assumed the form Felleisen. This etymologizing may even be erudite: as when the spelling Thüringen (with Germanic fricative *th*, or *þ*) was substituted for the HG Düringen (§ 131*c*) and pronounced with *t*. Such etymologizing may be not only unconscious but almost incredibly absurd, as when ergetzen became ergötzen under the influence of Götze.

Speech-Mixture

129. A more or less conscious change may take place in one's pronunciation in imitation of that of another district or class, or of individuals who like to set fashions in such matters. This is especially important in the case of those seeking to speak a more general or literary dialect. (*a*) It often leads to "exceptions", the new pronunciation being acquired only in those words that are in general use in the society speaking the superior dialect, while the older pronunciation is retained in technical and local words and those that are avoided in good society. (*b*) On the other hand, in the case of a person given to generalizing, it leads to the ignoring of special cases and of justifiable exceptions to the supposed rule, and may bring about comical results: a person who naturally sounds au as o (§ 173 R_3), when

trying to speak fine, is apt to substitute au for his o not only in auch but also in Ofen, &c. See also § 225 N 1 end. (*c*) It often leads to the substitution of similar familiar sounds for the new ones heard: so *ſ* for *ʒ* in words of French origin, § 199, 1*d*; see also § 207 R & § 187, 1 N 1*a* end. This is called **Sound-Substitution.**

Remark. Similar phenomena occur in acquiring one's mother tongue. A child, either because of inaccuracy in hearing or because of insufficient ability to reproduce, substitutes similar sounds for those heard. These may be but slight deviations from the original sounds, § 104, 1, or they may be sounds produced by entirely different organs, as when the uvular and glottal r's are substituted for the front r, § 221. Then again, as the child gradually gives up his baby-talk for the speech of grown people, he is learning a new dialect; and though he get sounds correctly in the new words that he learns, he is apt to retain the wrong sounds for some time in the words he has long known. He may even pronounce a word correctly in a new sense and incorrectly in a familiar one, thus giving rise to doublets.

SPONTANEOUS CHANGES

130. We may designate as spontaneous changes those which, while doubtless due to some psychological condition, to temperament, or to climate, are as yet not thoroughly explained, § 105. Such are cases of metathesis like dialectic Purvel for Pulver, § 125 end; the change of *ū* to *au* in German and English *hūs* > Haus, *house;* the voicing of initial fricatives in southern England, Holland, and north-western Germany, § 223, 2; and such nasalization as appears in our northern States (§ 133), Scandinavia, and parts of Germany. Here too may be classed most of the changes involved in the

High-German Shift of Consonants

131. This is an important modification of the Germanic consonants, forming the chief distinction between Low Ger-

man and High German. It affected the voiceless stops mostly, and the tongue-tip consonants in particular. English words may be taken to illustrate the unshifted Germanic consonants.

(*a*) Initially and when doubled.	After sonorous consonants.	After vowels.
p > pf: pound Pfund, Apfel;	f: sharp ſcharf;	f: deep tief.
t > z (= *ts*): to zu, Schlitz;	z (= *ts*): salt Salz;	ſ: out aus.
k > k: come kommen, Zuck;	k: work Werk;	ch: eke auch.

Note. A spirant weakened (§ 150 N 1*b*) a following stop and prevented it from shifting: ſpinnen, ſtehen, Kraft, Macht. The later change of *sk* > ſch = *ſ* is due to mutual assimilation, § 119 end. *tr* too remained unshifted: tread treten, bitter bitter. ſcharf &c. had pf in OHG.

(*b*) The voiced stop *d* > t: dead tot; but nt < *nd* returned to nd: binden. *b* and *g* may be said to have not changed, but they are often spirants, especially medially, §§ 178 R 1, 197, 198.

(*c*) The voiceless fricative *þ* > voiced and then > d: the der, feather Feder, when doubled it > tt: Fittich. *ſ* appears as ſ, *h* (= *χ*) as h and ch (= *χ*, *ĥ*, or *k*).

Remark. A full treatment of this subject belongs to historical and comparative grammar.

Chapter ij

GERMAN SPEECH-SOUNDS

Remark. It is convenient to retain the traditional division of sounds into vowels and consonants (§ 77), and to adopt under each some of the more exact classifications as to manner of production.

THE VOWELS

32. A vowel is voice modified by the resonance (§§ 75–6) of one or more of the passages of the delta. For example,

The High-front-rounded Vowel *ü* in Hüte; showing the two ways in which it may be formed.

in the formation of an oral vowel, the tongue is so placed that the passage is divided into two chambers: each of

these has its resonance, and the quality of the vowel is determined by the relative resonance of the two chambers, or of the smaller chamber on the one hand and the two together on the other. In the case of some vowels, for ex., ü, the protrusion of the lips presents a third chamber; as does also the lowering of the soft palate in the case of nasal and nasalized vowels.

Note 1. As the essential thing is the *relative* resonance of the chambers, it will be seen that the shape and size of the chambers may vary (and actually do, even in the same individual), provided the ratio remain constant, see cuts * above.

Note 2. If whisper (§ 96) or breath takes the place of voice, we have the so-called "whispered vowels" or "breathed vowels", § 108, 2 *b*.

Palate Positions

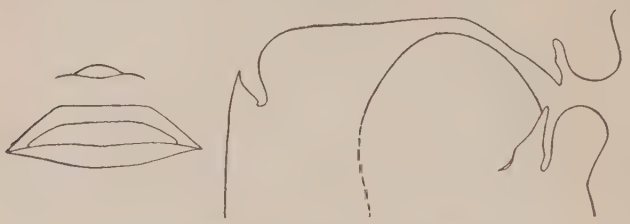
133. Most vowels are oral, that is, the passage to the nose is closed by the soft palate, § 71. If the soft palate hangs loose, so that some breath passes through the nose, the vowel is said to be nasalized. In the "nasal twang" common in the northern States, the soft palate does not hang so low as in the French and SG **Nasal Vowels**, § 207 N.

---

* These figures, as well as those in § 134, are taken from Grandgent's *German and English Sounds*. As to his drawings Mr. Grandgent says: The large drawing in each cut represents a longitudinal section of the mouth; the tongue-line indicates the position of the central groove of the tongue — not that of the side edges, which are nearly always lower than the middle strip. The relative height of the edges and of the middle of the tongue may be seen from the upper one of the two smaller diagrams given; in the case of the front vowels, the drawing represents the passage between the fore part of the tongue and the roots of the teeth, as it appears when the head is thrown back; in the case of *ü*, the figure shows the highest part of the tongue that can be seen, and the section of the palate that is over it. The third diagram gives a front view of the lips.

Tongue Positions

134. 1) If the tongue is pushed forward while a vowel is being sounded, the vowel is a **Front Vowel**; if the tongue



The High-front Vowel *ī* in bieten.*

The High-back-rounded Vowel *ū* in Mut.*

is drawn back, the vowel is a **Back Vowel**; if the tongue is in a neutral position, the vowel is a **Mixed Vowel**, § 187, 1.

2) If the tongue † is raised rather close to the roof of the mouth while a vowel is being sounded, the vowel is a **High Vowel**; if the tongue is moderately lowered, the vowel is a **Mid Vowel**; if the tongue is considerably lowered, the vowel is a **Low Vowel.** The vowels in the following words are: *pit*, high-front; *pet*, mid-front; *pat*, low-front. Cf. §§ 77, 135.

---

* See footnote on page 89.

† In rising as in falling, the tongue and the lower jaw generally act together.

Remark. It must be understood that the positions in which the tongue may be put are innumerable and the corresponding possible vowels innumerable, also that such terms as 'front', 'mid', &c., while very practical, are not exact. For example, the German back vowels are more back than the English back vowels are; and many speakers make, for instance, each of the following vowels slightly lower than the preceding one (See, ſehen, ſehr, Väter, währen), but we usually call them all mid.

Narrowness

135. Vowels often appear in pairs: one clear and bright, the other of a duller quality. Sometimes the clearer vowel is simply a little higher than the other, and they are called respectively *Close* and *Open*. Sometimes the clearer vowel is produced by a tenseness of the upper surface of the tongue, which bulges up and thus narrows a portion of the resonance chamber; in the case of the back vowels there appears also to be at times a tenseness and retraction of the soft palate. Such vowels have been called *Narrow*, and those formed without stringency *Wide*. In this book the term "narrow" is used for the clearer vowel, and "wide" for the duller, whether the difference be due to height, tenseness, or some other cause. *ī ē ū ō* are generally narrow, and *ɪ̄ ɛ̄ ʊ̄ ɔ̄* wide, § 111; when short vowels *are* narrow, they are represented in the phonetic transcription by Roman, not Italic, type; so *relatīv'*.

Rounding

136. If, while a vowel is being sounded, the lips are brought pretty close together, protruded (§165, 1), or rounded as in whistling, the vowel is called a *Rounded Vowel*.

1) Rounding is conservative of breath and is often resorted to in holding long notes in singing, §§ 216, 237, and in calling at a distance (cf. *pūg* for 'pig' in calling pigs

in some of the northern States). In making vowels, it is needed the more the farther back the place where the tongue approaches the roof of the mouth, § 112.

2) Hence rounding is characteristic of back vowels, front vowels being usually made with a somewhat long opening of the lips. When back vowels become front (§ 120, 2) they keep their rounding for some time, but tend to lose it: thus ö ü have become e i in most of South and Middle Germany and in parts of North Germany.* This pronunciation is not yet, however, recognized as good usage, the rest of the country yielding in this, as in other points, to the conservatism of the North. But even North-German poets seldom hesitate to rime rounded with unrounded forms: Meere gehöre (Heyse, Mädchenlieder), weit heut (Tieck, Herbſtlied), Liebe trübe (Voss, Der Wechſel).

Quantity

137. If a vowel is sounded quickly, it is called Short; if it is prolonged, it is called Long. See § 102.

1) *STRESSED VOWELS*

In German a stressed vowel is generally long in an open syllable and short in a closed one (but see § 141): long in dā, Chā'os, hā'ben, Wē'ges; short in dăs, Spĕr'ling, hăt'te, wĕg.

Remark 1. For the definition of open and closed syllables, see § 92; for syllabic division, §§ 88 &c.

Remark 2. In cases of syncope like ē'dler, ī'brig, Gefrōrnes, Gēgner, rēgnen, Lūgner, Adler < MHG *adel-ar*, the stressed syllable remains open and its vowel long, § 91 N 2.

Note 1. It is not customary to double a digraph or a trigraph (§ 46 N 3), and so it is not easy to tell when the preceding syllable is closed and its vowel short. Before ng (formerly = *ŋg*) and generally before ſch (formerly = *sk*) and ch

* The same change had begun in the earliest English known.

(formerly = χχ < *kχ*) a vowel is short, but generally long before foreign ꝑ (= *f*) and t̶ (= *t*), § 90. The vowel before ɤ (= *ks*) is, of course, short, also that before ʒ (Hȳtze, § 46 N 3), but not before ʒ (Novī'ze). Contrary cases will be explained under each vowel, §§ 170 &c.

Note 2. A short vowel occurs in some exclamations in an open syllable or one that is closed only by the glottal stop (§ 154, 2): dă 'there now!' nă 'well?' or 'quit!', jă, hă, băh, păh.

Note 3. In some words an old long vowel before two or more consonants has remained long; such cases are recorded under each vowel, §§ 170 &c. This is most common before (1) *ts* (when spelled ʒ § 137 N 1 end): Brĕzel, dŭzen, Hospīz', Mieze, Novī'ze, and even before ʒ in the names Glāʒ and Grāʒ; also in East Middle Germany in many words that elsewhere have ʒ and short vowel (aufmuʒen, Huʒel, Schmuʒ, Spaʒ, &c.); (2) *st*: dūſter, hūſten, Ōſtern, Trōſt, wūſt, &c.; (3) *tſ* (spelled tſch) in a number of words, mostly of Slavic origin: ātſch or ētſch 'aha!' (in derision), Brātſche, grätſche(l)n, grätſchbeinig. &c., Karbātſche, Kardātſche, Kartātſche, and in East Middle Germany in about a dozen other words (dātſchen, hätſcheln, Kladderadātſch, Krētſcham, Krētſchmer, lātſchen, &c., Mūtſche, nūtſchen, pätſcheln, tätſcheln, trätſchen, wātſcheln, &c.), which are most common there and are apt to be pronounced with a short vowel when used elsewhere. But always klătſch, quătſch, pătſch, Pătſche, pătſchen, plătſch, plătſchen, plătſchern, &c.

138. When a word has its stressed syllable open in some forms and closed in others, the open syllable prevails, or, as it is called, the closed syllable is "levelled" to the open, § 126. For ex., in Tag, Ta-ges, Ta-ge, Tag; Ta-ge, Ta-ge, Ta-gen, Ta-ge, the two closed syllables could not hold their own against the six open ones; so Wēg,* Hōf, gāb, gieb because of Wē-ges, Hō-fe, gā-ben, gē-ben.

Note 1. In North Germany the vowel still often remains short in the closed syllable: Tăg tăglich but Tā-ges, Lŏb

* But not the adverbial accusative wĕg 'away', which, being isolated from the noun, retained the short vowel and, to a large extent, the old final *k*-sound, § 194, 2 R. Similarly flŭgs, adverbial genitive of Flug.

löb=lich but Lō=bes, Grăb Begrăbnis but Grā̈ber, grăm but grā̈men, măg but mögen. The only cases that are common to a large part of Germany are grŏb and Schmĕd as against grō=bes grō=ber Grō=bian and Schmēde; but the regular grōb and Schmied are heard in South Germany. grŏblich is only North German.

Note 2. (*a*) In adopted words of more than one syllable a stressed vowel before a single consonant is generally long according to § 90: hellē'niſch, kannibā'liſch, philolō'giſch, Lȳ'riker, Mū'ſiker, Atōm', Baſār', Civīl', Diät', diskrēt', Diſpūt', geniāl', Koſtüm', Natūr', porös', Problēm', &c., also in Berlīn', Stettīn', &c. < the Slavic.

Remark. It will be observed that in words from Greek and Latin, like Natūr, Problēm, &c., the foreign ending is lost. Real Greek and Latin endings, like =as, =es, =is, =os, =us, =um, =on, =or, have the vowel short: Atlăs, Achillĕs, Iris, Chaŏs (but burſchikōs formerly printed burſchikως § 311), Omnibŭs, Publikŭm, Kanŏn.

(*b*) But before k, t (less frequently p, z), a and i are generally shortened in M. and S. Germany, e, o, u &c. occasionally: dramăt'iſch, diplomăt'iſch, Mathemät'iker, (final -at rarely: Demokrăt', Ariſtokrăt', Diplomăt', Konſulāt', Soldāt', &c.), Fabrĭk', Perpendĭk'el, Profĭt', krĭt'iſch, Tĭt'el, &c. (see § 201 N 6), Patriŏt', patriŏt'iſch; still, in Middle Germany usually Appetīt', Prinzīp', Hoſpĭz', and often Muſĭk', &c.

(*c*) In North Germany this is done in but few: Gramm=măt'ik, Fiăk'er, Kapĭt'el, Zith'er, Cĭt'o, before ph in Metăph'er, Săph'ir, and often in scientific terms in ik, see § 201 N 6. Likewise in Billĕt', Bouquĕt', Reliĕf', Stĕph'an; before l in Hotĕl', Aprĭl', Krokodĭl'; see also § 144 N 3 *b*. Words like Bankett, Flanell, &c., that are now generally spelled with double final consonants, need not be noticed.

Remarks. (*a*) The original quantity of the vowel in a classical word is no guide to its quantity in German, any more than in English: Emphāſe, Dōſis, Aſȳl, &c., Lĕmnos, Ätna with ä, Glōſſe, Nŏnſens, &c. There is, however, a pedantic tendency in some schools to reflect in German one's knowledge of the original quantity (as some people say 'ēsthetic', 'Hellēnic', and 'erōtic' in English): antiſeptiſch, Glōſſe, &c. This is particularly strong in the case of ä: Äſchylus, Äskulap, Äſthetik, Hephäſtus, Menächmen, &c., and may here prevail. (*b*) In the case of words adopted from modern languages, the attempt is usually made to retain the original quantity of the stressed syllable: Toaſt, Fiäker, Jöli, &c.

Note 3. Adopted words of one syllable are rarely inflected by the addition of a vowel, and so the stem syllable, being generally closed, retains the short vowel; some of these words, moreover, have been introduced since the lengthening of §§ 141 *a*, 110. Bŭß, Păß, Cĕs Cĭs &c., Chĕf, Chŏk, Dŏn, Grŏg, Grŏs, the name Hăm, Jŏt '*j*' but Jōd '*iodine*', Kăp, Klŭb, Rŭm. But a few, mostly such as were early introduced and had forms with open syllables, have long vowels: brāv, Chōr, Chrōm, Stīl, Thrōn, and usually Gās and Spāß.

139. Similarly, an accumulation of consonants due to inflection, composition, syncope, etc., does not generally cause the keeping of a preceding vowel short or the shortening of a long one: (*a*) Inflection, derivation, etc.: gelēbt < lēben, tāglich < Tāg, nāchſt < nāch, quākſen < quāken, Rātſel < rāten, Grētchen < Margarēta, Bārvōrſchuß, Hōchſommer; (*b*) Syncope: Pāpſt < MHG *bābes*, Prōpſt < *probest*, ſtēts < *stætes*, Vōgt < *voget*, Māgd < *maget*, but usually Jăgd < *jaget*. For ātmen, ēdler, &c. see § 137 R 2.

Note. We have here a struggle between the psychological principle and the phonetic (§ 126, 2), and the latter sometimes prevails: (1) a vowel originally short has occasionally remained so before two or more consonants but has become long before but one, especially so when the vowel or a neighboring consonant varies in the different forms or when the meaning has diverged: bărfuß bāres and bār, pŏlniſch Pōlen, diesſeit (ie = *ĭ*) dieſer, lieſt (ie = *ĭ*) lēſen, gĭbſt or giebſt gēben, Gelübde (ŭ or ü) gelōben, Trăcht trāgen, Schlăcht ſchlāgen, mŏchte mōgen, Gewĭcht wiegen, Gĭft gēben, hătte and gehăbt hāben, Hĕrberge Hĕrzog but Heerfahrt Heerſtraße, &c. which are still associated mentally with Heer, Ūrteil ūr-, Vŏrteil vōr; and (2) in some* cases a long vowel *has* been shortened when the number of consonants was increased: gehŏrſam hōren, Viertel vier, Hŏchzeit hōch, &c., usually Năchbar, Năch'mittag', in the North Lŏrbeer and often nămlich, in the South năchſt, Rătſel, &c. (3) Under (1) and (2) fall also words like

* The shortening of a stressed vowel before a consonant + consonantal *i* (§ 201 N 3) is common in Kaſtănie, occasional in Spănien, Ităl̆ien, Gymnăſium, &c.

Brŏm=beere, Dăm=bock, Măr=ſtall, Rĕb=huhn, Schwĭb=bogen, Wăl=nuß, and names like Gĕb=hard, Wĭn=fried, &c., the first syllable of which no longer occurs as an independent word, or at least not in the same form. (Cf. § 46, 2 end.) In some parts the ie of Wiesbaden = ĭ, as it does in and about the place, § 158, 3 ft. Some of the words under (1) may be due to lengthening (§§ 141 *a*, 110) and subsequent shortening, and so belong under (2).

140. The vowel of a stressed closed syllable is lengthened: (*a*) before r, § 123, 1: dār=, dēr, hēr, dīr, empōr, fūr, ūr=, vōr, &c.; but see § 144 N 1; (*b*) often before r + point consonant (d, t, z, ſ, ſch) § 123, 1: zārt, Hārz, &c.; zārtlich and others with ā<ā; Hērde, wērden (but i does not lengthen: wĭrd &c., except occasionally in Hirſe), &c.: Behōrde, Bōrſe, &c.; Gebūrt, &c.; but there is still much difference of usage (see the various vowels, §§ 170 &c.); (*c*) before m and n in the pronouns dēm, dēn, ihm, ihn, wēm, wēn*; (*d*) before l, m, r, under secondary stress, in =ſal, =ſam, =bar, § 170 N 3 end.

141. The rule given in § 137, 1 was not always as true as now; but (*a*) the short vowels in open syllables became long, § 110 *a* (or the consonants doubled), and (*b*) many long vowels in closed syllables became short, § 110 *b*: brăchte, hŏrchen, Lĭcht, Klăfter, Ŏſten (except in parts of North Germany), Pfrŭnde and (except in parts of South Germany) ſĭng, gĭng, hĭng; locally in Obſt, Rüſter, Magd, &c. See § 137 N 3.

142. (*a*) Though, in composition or derivation, the long stressed vowel of a native word gets only secondary stress, it is rarely shortened: Sünd'flūt', Grün'don'nerstāg', frei'gē'big, ūr'ſprüng'lich, Sā'merei', ſtrōm'auf', nün'= viel'mehr' (ie = ī), but Am'bŏß', wăhr'haf'tig, Jăhr'hun'dert, bŭch'ſtăbie'ren.

---

* ān bīn hīn kānn vōn ūn= &c. are dialectic, ān and ūn= very common in the South and parts of the Midland.

(*b*) In the following, da- her- &c. have little stress and the vowel is usually short: dămĭt' -bei' -rauf' &c., hĕrein', năchher', hierhēr' (ie = ĭ), vŏran' -bei', vŏrlieb' -züg'lich, un'vŏrsich'tig; also the following, for which see § 144 N 2 *b* end: fŏr- zŭgleich', zŭmal' -erſt', vĭelleicht', and so ch and ck = *tsehā'* &c. (but the less usual ph = *pē'hā'*), for chs = *tsē'hă-ĕs'* see § 278, 1. The teens, for ex., dreizehn, are *drai'tsēn'* or *drai'ts·n*, &c.

Note. (*a*) There are a number of compounds (including numerous proper names) whose composition is obscure, and some words having the appearance of compounds: these often give the learner difficulty in the matter of quantity and shall, therefore, receive treatment under each vowel, §§ 170 &c. (*b*) Whether other syllables of German words have a long or a short vowel can generally be seen from the spelling, §§ 46–7; for adopted words see §§ 144 N, 1 *b*, 2–4, 138 N 2, 90 & N.

143. The fact that a vowel is long is sometimes indicated by doubling it (§ 43) or by adding a silent h (§§ 45, 200 *b*); for ie = *ī*, see §§ 44, 202.

2) *UNSTRESSED VOWELS*

144. The vowel in an unstressed word * or syllable is usually short, § 109: bĭn, mĭt, Kö'nĭg, ŭnend'lĭch, ămŭſant'. But see § 166 *c* & § 144 N 2.

Remark. At the North a long vowel may still be heard in the final syllables of Adler, Bettler, Lügner, &c. For Heimăt, ſeltſăm, etc., see § 142 & N *a*.

Note 1. (*a*) There are some words that are sometimes stressed and sometimes not, and that have a long or a short vowel accordingly, § 118. At times it is emphasis that gives a word stress and thus a long vowel, cf. also §§ 243 *a*, and 295:

---

* Words that are usually or often unstressed are, for the most part, monosyllables and include (1) the forms of the article; (2) măn, ĕs; (3) ŏb, ŭnd; (4) the prepositions, for ex., ăb, ăn and ăm, bĭs, fŭr, gĕn, ĭn and ĭm, mĭt, ŭm, vŏn and vŏm, zŭ, zŭm and zŭr, &c.; (5) bĭn, hăt, &c. For für, zu, nach, see also § 144 N 1.

dēr′ dēn′ &c. 'that' but dĕr dĕn &c. 'the'; jā′ 'yes' or 'by all means' but jă 'you know'; zū′ adv. but zŭ prep.; so also für, war, da, paar, du, er, ihn, ihr, mir, ſie, ſchon, ſo, vor, wohl, &c. Middle and South Germans distinguish between strong nāch and weak năch, and many do the same with genŭg; but North Germans always say năch and many always say genŭg, § 104, 2 end. For ī in the adj. ziemlich but ī or ĭ in the adv. cf. Word-List. Some distinguish between Ar'thūr′ and Ar′thŭr Braun', § 277. The military salute Wĕr' da? usually has ă. (*b*) For Grā′zie : grăziŏs′, Intrī′gue : intrĭgie′ren, &c., see §§ 118, 315.

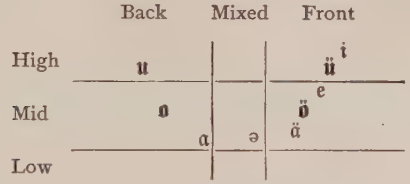
Note 2. (*a*) In adopted words unstressed vowels and even vowels under secondary stress are generally short: Gĕnĕrălĭſ′ſĭmŭs. (*b*) But in an open syllable (§§ 92, 90) they are usually narrow if narrow when long, § 90: relatīv′ (see § 186, 1), Oran′ge, Kilogramm′ (§ 91, 3 *c*), Büreau′, ſtudie′ren. A narrow short vowel may also be heard in native compounds and conglomerates: ſo= zugleich′, zumal′ &c., ch = *tseha′*, &c. § 185 N 3. (*c*) But in some common words er = *ər* or *·r*: Rhino′ceros, Cho′lera; and (esp. next to t) o is sometimes a wide short vowel: Krokodil′, Schokola′de, Komitee′, Komet′, Kolonie′, koloſſal′, &c.

Note 3. (*a*) Such a narrow vowel generally becomes long when the syllable, either regularly (§ 313) or occasionally (§ 316), gets chief stress: Kī'logramm′, Plū'ral, Fē'mini'num, Nō'minativ′, Gē'nitiv′, but also Fĕm'= Nŏm'= Gĕn'=, occasionally Spĭn'āt′, Gĕn'erāl′ (§ 313 R *b*) for Spināt′, Generāl′. (*b*) Under the same circumstances, the wide vowel a usually remains short: Kăn'evas, Păl'etot, Păp'a, &c. § 170 N 3; but usually ā in Dā′tiv (§ 90), Sā′tan, Schā′kal, Tā′bak; and some say Kā′napee. See also § 138 N 2 *b*.

Note 4. (*a*) Native unstressed final vowels, as a rule, long ago became =e = *ə* § 113, 365. (*b*) Long (§ 166 *b*, or half-long § 102) final vowels occur (in words other than monosyllables) only in foreign words (Annā, Athenē § 187, 1 N 3, Hindū, Julī, Junō, Hartī), Old-German and dialectic words (Berthā, Lokī, Ingō, Ottō, Ihrō, &c., Ruodī, Grabōw, Höltī, &c.), imitative words (Uhū, Kakadū), exclamations (hollă, heiſă), compounds (alſō, ebenſō), and words remodeled on the analogy of others (deſtō < deſte through the influence of um ſo, Jenā < Jene by analogy to Latin geographical names in =a). In S & EG =ă may be heard: Afrika, Algebra, &c., and, esp. in the SW, =ĭ: Juli, Juni, Ruodi, Alabi, &c.

TABLE OF VOWELS

145. The following are the vowels recognized in "standard" German (§ 134 R). ʉ, ɒ, ʉ̈, ɒ̈ are rounded (§ 136); for narrowness cf. § 135. For individual vowels cf. §§ 170 &c.



See p. xvi.

THE DIPHTHONGS

146. In sounding *a* the mouth-passage assumes a certain form, in sounding *i* it assumes another. We can easily change from the position of *a* to that of *i*, and vice versa, making a brief transition sound called a glide, § 80. If a new impulse of breath be given when the mouth-passage assumes the form necessary to produce another vowel, we get a new syllable, § 86; and thus there may be produced a whole series of vowels, *a–i–a–u–i*, &c., with as many syllables. But if the mouth-passage assume the position of one vowel and change to that of another *during the same breath-impulse*, only one syllable is made, and the sound is called a diphthong.*

Note. One of the two vowels making up a diphthong receives the stress, the other or unsyllabic vowel may be printed with a curl under it, so *au̯*. The unsyllabic part is more commonly a high vowel (§ 134, 2), so *i* or *u*; but these are often lowered to *e o*.

* A diphthong must not be confounded with a digraph; the former is two vowels in one syllable, the latter is two letters for one sound: ie = long ī, and ch = Modern Greek χ, are digraphs; sch = *ſ* is a trigraph.

147. There are in German three generally recognized diphthongs, each having the stress on the first element : —

Back	*au̯* or *ao̯* spelled au,	Haus, § 173.
Front	*ai̯* or *ae̯* spelled ai and ei (§ 33),	Waiſe 'orphan', Weiſe 'manner', §§ 172, 188.
Front	*oü̯* or *oö̯* spelled äu and eu (§ 32),	Häute 'skins', heute 'today', §§ 177, 190.

Note. The diphthongs are classed as "front" and "back" according as the second element is a front or a back vowel; the first element is in all three cases a back vowel. For *u̯i̯*, see § 235; for *o̯a*, see § 213*c*; for *i̯u*, *i̯o*, *i̯a*, *i̯ɔ*, see § 204 N 1*c* and § 201 N 3.

THE CONSONANTS

148. If the breath is (1) impeded in its flow, but still allowed to pass through a more or less narrow opening (as that between the two rows of teeth — *s*, or the nasal passage — *m*, &c.), or is (2) entirely shut off for a moment (as by the lips — *p*) and then suddenly exploded; the sound is called a *Consonant*, § 77. See also Remark above § 132.

WAYS OF MAKING CONSONANTS

(1) *WITH OR WITHOUT STOPPAGE*

149. 1) A consonant produced by stopping and then exploding the breath is called a **Shut Consonant** or a **Stop** (also a *Mute*), § 97 : *p*, *b*, *t*, &c. See also § 153, 2.

Note. A stop may be simple (as in France and some parts of Germany), or be **aspirated**,* that is, followed by a more or

* An aspirated stop must not be confounded (as is often done) with a fricative (§ 149, 2*a*); but an aspirate is apt, in the course of time, to change into an affricate (§ 82) and then (the stop assimilating to the fricative) into a fricative. Thus the aspirated *t* in English *to* is like ancient Greek *θ*, but *θ* later became a fricative, like English *th* in *thick*.

less noticeable *h* or breath, § 83. Voiceless stops are most noticeably aspirated before a stressed vowel (with *h*, § 154) and, if final, after a stressed vowel (with breath, §§ 72, 96). This is true of English (very distinctly marked in Irish pronunciation) and of German as spoken at the North; so *pope*, *kick*, Kap, Papā (the stressed p). But see § 150 N 1 *b*.

2) A consonant produced by allowing the breath to escape through an opening is called an **Open Consonant**, § 97.

(*a*) If the opening is very narrow so that there is much friction of the breath against the walls of the passage, the consonant is called a **Fricative** (also a *Spirant*): *f*, *s*, *ʃ*, *χ*, and *v*, *z*, *j*, *γ*.

(*b*) If the opening is not so narrow as to cause marked friction, the consonant is called a **Sonorous Consonant**, § 77; thus, the *Nasals* (§ 99) *m*, *n*, *ŋ*, and the *Liquids*, *l*, *r*.

Note. The line dividing fricatives and sonorous consonants is an indefinite one, and an open consonant easily passes it. Thus *r* in English *try* and often in German Bart (§ 221, 2 end) is a fricative. Similarly, the fricative *j* is but little different from unsyllabic *i*, or the 'semi-vowel,' § 77.

(2) *WITH OR WITHOUT VOICE*

150. 1) At the same time that the consonant is being sounded, the vocal chords may be vibrating, that is, producing voice (§ 73). Such a consonant is called a **Voiced Consonant** (also a *Sonant*).

2) If the vocal chords do not vibrate while a consonant is being sounded, it is called a **Voiceless Consonant** (also a *Surd*). In German as spoken at the North, and in English, voiceless consonants are breathed, that is, the vocal chords are relaxed (§ 96 *a*).

Note 1. (*a*) As part of the energy is spent in vibrating the vocal chords, there is less left to produce the local sound of a voiced consonant than there is when a breathed consonant is pronounced; hence voiced consonants are generally (as in English and North German) weaker or softer than breathed consonants (see also § 149 N and N 3 below). (*b*) Similarly,

a voiceless stop when following a fricative is weakened (§ 100 *d*) and not aspirated (§ 149, 1 N), see §§ 225–6 & 131 *a* N; and, if unstressed, it may quite disappear, § 231 N 2.

Note 2. (*a*) A consonant next a voiceless consonant, as in English, generally becomes more or less voiceless, § 119: so Kindes (with d voiced) when contracted becomes Kinds, that is *kints* (with the d and a part of the n voiceless before the voiceless final s, § 119); similarly the g in ſagt, the b in liebſt, the l in klein, &c. (*b*) The unvoicing of a sonorous consonant and of j and w usually extends only through that half that is next the voiceless consonant, and the partly unvoiced consonant remains weak, § 100. This partial unvoicing may be indicated by the use of Roman type (*c* below), but in the case of sonorous consonants is best left unexpressed, § 24 end. (*c*) An initial fricative generally becomes unvoiced after a voiceless final consonant: (1) in words like Nation *natsjōn*, Ad'jutant', abſichtlich, ausſuchen (§ 223 N 5), fügſam, obwohl, &c., (2) in enclitics like hat ſich, ob ſie, &c.; but as it usually remains weak (§ 100) like voiced consonants, this unvoicing is indicated in the phonetic transcription only by printing such consonants in Roman, rather than Italic, letters. (*d*) In some parts this happens also in the case of stops: ausgiebig, unlesbar, ob die, es geht, ich denke, especially in such words as Gelübde, Mägde, &c. Thus *kg* often > *kk* > *k* (§ 156, 3 *a*) in Rückgrat.

Note 3. In Middle and South Germany consonants are not generally voiced at all, but sometimes p–b, &c., are distinguished as strong and weak. Such weak, voiceless consonants (the stops are called "ſtimmloſe Medien" or "ſchwache Tenues") are generally breathed, with, however, less original breath-impulse than the ordinary breathed consonants (§ 100). The English-speaking learner will, of course, follow the usage of North Germany and the stage, as his native practice would lead him to do.

PLACES WHERE CONSONANTS ARE MADE

151. Consonants are made (1) in the mouth-passage, (2) through the nose, (3) in the throat.

152. Oral Consonants are made (*a*) by the lips, **Lip Consonants**, or Labials: *Bilabials* if made with both lips, *Dentilabials* if made with lower lip and upper teeth;

(*b*) by the hard palate and the front of the tongue, **Front Consonants**, including: *Point Consonants*, or Dentals, and *Top Consonants*, or Palatals; (*c*) by the soft palate and the back of the tongue, **Back Consonants**, also called Velars or Gutturals. Of each of these there are open as well as shut consonants. See § 157.

153. 1) Nasal Consonants are sounded through the nose; but the quality of the **Open Nasals** is determined by the shape of the resonance chamber and this by the place where the mouth-passage is closed, thus: (*a*) *m*, by the lips, (*b*) *n*, by the point of the tongue, (*c*) *n̈*, by the top of the tongue, (*d*) *ŋ*, by the back of the tongue. See § 157.

2) There is also a shut nasal, or **Nasal Stop.** In sounding any shut consonant, the passage to the nose is closed by the soft palate pressing against the back of the pharynx, and that through the mouth by the lips meeting or the tongue pressing against some part of the palate. The shut consonant may be exploded by releasing the mouth closure and is then called an oral stop, or by releasing the soft palate from the back of the pharynx and is then called a nasal stop. Compare *white* with *whiten* or *Whitney*. The nasal explosion may be written *ᵑ*, but it is generally unnecessary to express it. In English such a nasal explosion occurs generally only when an *n* (or *·n*, § 187, ₂N₅) follows a *t*, but in German it is generally used when any nasal follows a stop, thus in Lappen *lapᵖ·m*, abmachen, Hauptmann, denken, as well as in hatten. See § 83.

154. Glottal Consonants.

1) The **Glottal Fricative** h (§ 200) is produced by the friction of the breath against the vocal chords as they gradually stiffen preparatory to the production of voice for a vowel, or correspondingly relax.

Remark. Properly speaking, h is a glide (§ 80) and not a consonant; for, as Sievers points out, it has not been proved that in its production any one position is held.

2) The **Glottal Stop** is produced by stopping the breath in the throat and exploding it there, as one often does in making an unusual effort, as in pushing. It is generally employed by N & M Germans before initial stressed vowels: 'ich, 'auch, 'alle, Wand'uhr, 'ab'ändern, (not in enclitics: da' es, hat' er, muß' ich, &c., nor in cases like allein, hinab, voran, Obacht, selbander, &c., see § 89 N 1), and sometimes after stressed monosyllables ending in a short vowel (the impatient dă' and nă' and the doubting jă'), similarly before n in cross 'nă! and 'nein; but they never write it, and are generally unaware of its existence. In books on phonetics it is sometimes expressed by ' as above.

Remark. Many Americans and (according to Lloyd) many Englishmen use the glottal stop before the stressed initial vowel of an emphatic word. Children in learning to talk are apt to substitute it for oral stops, especially for final *k*, *t*, &c.

QUANTITY AND DOUBLE CONSONANTS

155. While the quantity of consonants varies somewhat, the m of Kamm being longer than that of Kammer (§ 93, 2 end), still a German consonant that follows a vowel or is final may be counted short when compared with an English consonant in the same position, § 166 *c*. English-speaking persons need to be particularly careful not to hold final and medial sonorous consonants as long as they do in English: Kamm, Hand, Hilfe, hart, alle.

Remark. A long *s* may sometimes be heard for *sts* in Scene &c. (§ 179 R 1) or for sf in liefeft &c. (§ 187, 2 N 4).

156. 1) In most cases where a consonant is now written double in German or English, it was at one time held and a new breath-impulse began in the middle of it, § 86 R. This is, however, no longer true in either language, and the fact that two consonants are written may be regarded merely as a sign of the shortness of the preceding vowel (§ 46).

2) Where the two consonants belong to different elements of a compound word or to two adjoining words, they are both pronounced (not, however, as two separate consonants, §§ 83 end, 86 R): fort'trei'ben, Wart'turm', Pack'knecht', Schwan'neſt', Wahl'liſ'te, kam mit, Lied tönt, ſchlief feſt, trink(t) keins, &c.

3) But the long consonant is frequently shortened: (*a*) In compounds that are very familiar, at least by those who use them most frequently: Be(t)tuch, Han(d)tuch, Mi(t)tag, Bre(n)neſſel, zah(l)los, da(s)ſelbe, de(s)ſelben, Bo(r)rat, &c. (*b*) When there are neighboring consonants: Herbſ(t)tag, Leuch(t)turm, Papſ(t)tum, ach(t)zehn, haſ(t) du, &c. (*c*) When one syllable is weakly stressed: Gru(m)met, de(n)noch, vie(l)leicht, Vie(l)liebchen, Wo(l)luſt, Unte(r)richt, ze(r)reißen, Vergiß'mei(n)nicht', &c. But (*d*) if another (ridiculous) meaning would be suggested, pains are usually taken to keep the consonant long: Schullehrer, Einnehmer, &c.

157. TABLE OF CONSONANTS

			Front			Lip		
	Throat	Back	Top	Point		Lip-teeth	Lips	
Voiceless	' § 154, 2	*k* Koch	*c* Kind	*t* tot			*p* Papa	Shut Consonants
Voiced		*g* gut	*j* gibt	*d* da			*b* Bibel	
Voiceless	*h* Hand	*χ* ach	*ſ* ich	*ʃ* raſch	*s* iſt	*f* für	*φ* § 239, 2 end	Open Consonants — Sonorous Consonants — Fricatives
Voiced		*γ* NG Wagen	*j* ja	*ʒ* Journal	*z* NG dieſe	*v* NG ewig	*β* MG ewig	
Voiced	*ɹ* § 221, 3	*r* Bahre		*r* Bahre	*l* Lilie			Open Consonants — Sonorous Consonants — Oral
Voiced		*η* geſungen	*n* ſingen	*n* nennen			*m* Muhme	Open Consonants — Sonorous Consonants — Nasal

Chapter iij

PRONUNCIATION

A STANDARD OF PRONUNCIATION

158. 1) The circumstances under which the German "Literary Language" (Schriftſprache) was formed and spread tended to make it, as its name implies, a standard written rather than spoken language. The inhabitants of the various kingdoms and provinces learned to read a common language, but each pronounced it according to his local habit. There was no one great and lasting influence for Germany such as England had in London. Since the establishment of political union in a large part of the German territory, it has been urged that a uniform pronunciation of the standard language ("eine dialektfreie Ausſprache") should be striven after.

2) But the thing is unnatural and is hampered by serious difficulties. Not many care to make themselves conspicuous by a pronunciation that differs from that of those about them, especially if it be known to be artificial; some that favor a uniform pronunciation are unwilling to give up certain local peculiarities, believing them to have more

---

Bahder: *Grundlagen des nhd. Lautsystems*, 1890. Behaghel: *Geschichte der deutschen Sprache*, in Paul's Grundriss I., 1890. Brandt: *German Grammar*, 4th ed., 1888. Grandgent: *German and English Sounds*, 1892. Krumbach: *Deutsche Sprech-, Lese- und Sprachübungen*, 1893. Sweet: *Primer of Phonetics*, 1890. Trautmann: *Die Sprachlaute*, 1884–6. Vietor: *Phonetik*, 3d ed., 1893–4; *German Pronunciation*, 2d ed., 1890; *Die Aussprache des Schriftdeutschen*, 1890; *Wie ist die Aussprache des Deutschen zu lehren?* 1893; *Phonetische Studien.*

claim to general adoption than those of other dialects; and those who are willing to abandon all, seldom succeed in freeing themselves of more than the most marked peculiarities of their natural speech. Even that any considerable part of the population of Middle and South Germany will ever artificially acquire voiced b d g &c. is an idle fancy. Moreover, it is but natural that each province favor the employment of native teachers, and thus the local tendency is not distinctly opposed; and even when a different pronunciation is learned at school, this seldom persists out of school hours or when school days are over. The result is that few Germans who grow up in their native towns and follow in the footsteps of their fathers ever because of teaching speak materially differently from them; what the school has taken years to inculcate is reserved for state occasions and is generally soon forgotten. On the other hand, those that shift to other classes of society or come much in contact with people of another class, and those that move to distant parts or travel about, are apt to modify their natural speech and to cultivate a more general or select pronunciation; the facility with which the process of change goes on in each individual depends upon certain mental qualities.

3) Between the members of the higher classes of society of the various towns and districts there is more intercourse, direct and indirect, and hence there is greater uniformity of speech among them. This is, of course, aided by more constant teaching: but stronger than that of all oral teaching is the influence of the written language. In changing pronunciation this, nevertheless, usually operates only when decidedly different from the local usage; elsewhere only in the case of words that are more frequently seen than heard.*

* Similarly one generally pronounces the name of a distant place according to its spelling (not suspecting that this may be antiquated or dialectic) or stresses it as demanded by the metre of a familiar classic:

The uniformity that is thus built up by the more general spread of education, is, however, undermined by the very same influence. The maintenance of a standard is the easier the smaller the country or the circle to which it is limited: if, for ex., one is willing to disregard the vast English-speaking surface of the globe and cares only for London, he may find a standard that suits him, — that is, after he has shut out the larger part of the population of the place; so, too, when the body of speakers worthy of consideration consisted only of the court circle and its immediate connections, a fair uniformity of select speech could be maintained. But now that universal education has enlarged the circle, and ever-growing democratic tendencies bring it about that those who to-day are the children of humble and obscure people will to-morrow be teachers, professors, and preachers to the best in the land, tolerance of diversity of usage is inevitable.

159. We cannot but recognize that there is more than one good usage on various points; in another generation it may be that these two or three usages will stand about as they do to-day, or that one has gained materially over the others; while, on the other hand, what we to-day designate as provincial, as vulgar, or as pedantic, may have gained equal recognition with what is now good usage, and may in still another generation come out ahead. There is no standard, or we may say there are an infinite number of standards, harmonizing in most things but varying in not a few. Wherever they harmonize they work for uniformity, and vice-versa. What real standard there is is rather a negative one, in that, while some diversities of usage are

---

most people not living near the places say Wiesbaden (for *vīs-*) and Du'isburg (for *dūs-*), and stress Stralſund' (for Stral'ſund) as they remember it in Schiller.

tolerated, many are shut out as vulgar or provincial. That there is one positive standard which is observed by a considerable body of educated persons, which it is one's duty to aim at, and that stands a chance of being some day generally attained, is a delusion that is innocent enough so long as it does not divert the mental energy from more useful pursuits and lead to the entertainment of a bigoted opinion as to the speech of others.

STAGE PRONUNCIATION

160. Those who make a profession of speaking, cultivate, with more or less care, an artificial speech, — actors most successfully, teachers, preachers, and politicians much less so. There are several good reasons why persons training themselves to speak in large halls and before mixed audiences, should cultivate an artificially distinct and uniform articulation ; but to introduce such a style of speaking into the drawing-room or the walks of daily life, would be no more appropriate than to present there the full orchestra and the wardrobe of the stage. The stage usage [Bühnendeutsch] is the outgrowth of certain schemes of pronunciation constructed for the use of actors by men who had little knowledge of phonetics or the history of the language. This usage is based, consciously or unconsciously, upon the following principles : —

(1) That pronunciation is adopted which is in most general use (so final ng = *ŋ*, § 209 & N 3 ; initial ſt, ſp = *ʃt*, *ʃp*, § 225 & N 1 ; Tag, Zug, Hof, gram, &c., have long vowels, § 138 & N 1 : though contrary usage persists in parts of the North) ;

(2) Where usage is pretty evenly divided, analogy or older usage is allowed to prevail (for ex., g, like b and d, is sounded as a stop, — voiced when initial

or medial; voiceless, = *k*, when final — § 194, 1*b*: a concession to the South and parts of the Midland; similarly r is trilled with the tip of the tongue, § 221, 1, though a uvular *r* is now common in almost all parts); (3) Orthographic distinctions that are observed in the speech of a large (even if not in that of the largest) part of the country, are maintained (for example, d, b, ſ, &c., when not final are distinguished from t, p, ß, § 150 & N3; and ö, ü, äu are distinguished from e, i, ai, § 136, 2: both concessions to the North); (4) Historical distinctions in pronunciation that are no longer made in spelling, are ignored (so ē in leben is generally sounded as in See, though still distinguished in many parts, § 185 N2).

Nevertheless, it must not be supposed that all actors speak alike, or that the pronunciation of a good actor never betrays where he came from.

161. With this stage pronunciation as a basis, various orthoepists and phoneticians have prepared more or less practical treatises intended for teachers and others interested in the spread of a national pronunciation; among them those of Vietor are superior, p. 107 ff.

THE BEST GERMAN

162. Where the best German is spoken, is a question debated more by foreigners and exiled Germans than by the natives at home. In German communities one may discover various opinions, from the overweening confidence of many Hanoverians that they alone speak pure German, to the weak concession of some Saxons that any dialect is better than their own. The fact is that every province has its provincialisms, and that these generally prevent the pro-

nunciation of that district from being regarded as normal by the natives of other parts.

163. In the North, where the native dialect differs most strikingly from the literary language, the latter, being practically a foreign tongue, has required and received most careful study in the schools; as a result, one can hear at the North a German that is more bookish, orthographic, and "correct," than that commonly spoken elsewhere. The prominence of the North in literary and political matters for the past one hundred years, has tended to establish the good repute of North German. That the speech of Hanover should have gained in England the reputation of being the best German, is not strange; that this reputation later had a vogue on the continent, is not so easily explained. It is now generally recognized that Hanoverian German is in many respects provincial. The speech of the upper classes in Berlin has much higher claim to being "the best German," for it agrees in most points with what is the more usual throughout the country; and if Berlin remains the capital of the Empire, it must ultimately have an importance and influence similar to that long exerted by the speech of London and Paris. As regards intonation and some points of articulation (cf. § 150 N 3 end; § 239, 2*b*; 185, 2 end, 201, 2, 210, 233 N 1), the German of the North (and of the stage) stands nearer to English than other German does. English-speaking people generally succeed best in learning German in North or Middle Germany.

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GERMAN AND ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

164. From what has been said above as to the changes that speech undergoes and the varying propensities in different communities (§§ 104 &c.), it may be inferred that

the speech of one people differs from that of another not only in details but particularly in certain general tendencies. One community is inclined to use certain organs of speech in a more animated way than another does, and lets them fall into a different position when at rest, and one community may be less exact in observing the time of the various elements of a sound, § 119.

Basis of Articulation

165. To Germans English sounds dull and muffled, and they are wont to say that we do not open our mouths wide enough in speaking. We do, in fact, manage our lips and tongue differently.

1) In sounding the rounded vowels (§ 136) many of us do not protrude the lips as the Germans do, and in sounding unrounded vowels most of us do not open the lips in a narrow slit almost to the very corners of the mouth as is done by many Germans : that is, in both cases we leave the lips comparatively inactive. This makes all our vowels less clear and less distinct from one another than the corresponding German vowels are ; which is particularly noticeable in the case of the front vowels.

2) (*a*) In English the tongue, when in action, is not made as tense as in German, nor is it drawn as far back in sounding the back vowels nor pressed as far forward in sounding the front vowels. When at rest, it is left flat and allowed to lie low, being more or less hollowed in front, and seldom extended to the teeth. (*b*) This sluggish condition of the tongue favors wide, low, and mixed vowels : German has no such low vowels as those in *hat*, *law*, &c. are, and but one mixed vowel (§ 181, 1) and that unstressed, while English has also those in *cut*, *hurt*, and, in the pronunciation of many, *hot* and *part*. (*c*) In making German shut conso-

nants, not only are the parts that meet more tense, but not as much surface touches; this makes the German sounds not so muffled as the English are apt to be. (*d*) The fact that the tongue touches the teeth in sounding German t, d, l, n, &c., also tends to give these a clearer, more *i*-like sound.

Quantity

166. *a*) English long vowels tend to become, or, more correctly, have generally become, diphthongs; whereas the corresponding German vowels show no such tendency. This is most noticeable in the case of *ē* (§ 185 N 1), *ō* (§ 210 N 1), *ī* (§ 201), *ū* (§ 233 N 4).

Remark. Where such changes have been made in German, they are recognized in the spelling: Haus § 173, 3, mein § 188 R 3.

b) German final vowels (except -e, §§ 186–7 & N 3) are long: Anna &c. § 144 N 4.

c) Unstressed vowels (except -e, §§ 186–7 & N 3) in adopted words and in native prefixes and suffixes, do not become obscure as in English; they retain their true sound though quickly uttered: Kanal', direkt', Profeſſor, Cir'kus, Kö'nigin, § 113 end. Cf. also § 144 N 2. For native unstressed words and syllables, see §§ 144, 142.

Remark. But the weakening of -or to -er or -r is very common.

d) In English, long vowels are slightly shortened before voiceless consonants; so the vowel appears cut short in *rate*, *rope*, &c., compared with *raid*, *robe*, &c. No such shortening takes place in German; cf. geſchieht with *sheet*.

e) The consonant after a short vowel is more or less lengthened in English; whereas in German it is not and the learner must take pains to clip it short, as it were: Kamm, Mann, lang, Hand, halt, &c.; § 155.

Assimilation

167. *a*) The assimilation of nasals to preceding consonants is more common in North and Middle German (for South German see § 208 N 2 *a*) than in English. Thus haben may be sounded *hāb·n*, but is more commonly *hāb·m* (or *hām*); ſagen > *zā·γ·n* > *zā·γ·η* (or *zāη*); ſingen > *zi·η·n* > *zi·η·η*; and locally heißem > *hais·n*, ſaurem > *zau·rn*, langem > *laη·η*: while English 'open', 'sicken', &c., less often become *ōp·m*, *sik·η*.

b) The partial assimilation of a vowel to a following *r* has gone to great lengths in English: so *her*, *sir*, *fur*, &c., have all lost their distinctive vowel quality. But such assimilation is only dialectic in German, and the learner must strive to maintain the quality of the vowel, cf. §§ 185 N 4, 201 R *b*, 233 N 3.

Final Unvoicing

168. Unvoicing of final consonants is regular in German, cf. § 108, 2.

German Sounds Wanting in English

169. The following German sounds are the chief ones that do not occur in standard English, unless in isolated situations: ă, § 170, 2; ŏ, § 210 N 3: ö, § 216; ü, § 237; ə, § 187, 1; *ĥ*, *χ*, § 180; γ, § 198, 1; MG w, § 239, 1 *a*, ' § 154, 2.

Note 1. There are some sounds that are not, or but little, different from English sounds, but occur in positions unfamiliar to English usage. Thus *ts* (spelled z, § 242, or c, § 179, 1 *a*), gn, ſn do not occur initially in English but do in German: zu, Cirkus, Gnade, Knabe, &c.; ſ is not found in English initially before consonants, but is in German, so ſchmal, Stein, &c.; similarly the combination *pf* (Pfund, Strümpfe, &c.) can in English come about only by composi-

tion (for ex., 'helpful'); *ā*, *ë* (§ 176, 1) is a frequent German sound, while its nearest English correspondent occurs only before *r* ('their', 'hair', &c.).

Note 2. Some German letters are apt to be wrongly interpreted by the English-speaking learner. Thus German l and r are quite different from English *l*, *r* (§§ 206, 221). The *g* of *ng* has regularly become silent in German, though often retained medially in English, cf. Finger and länger with 'finger' and 'longer.' The *ti* of Latin words has in German become *tsj* (§ 232), while in English it has become *ſ*, cf. Nation with 'nation.' German ă, ŏ, ŭ must be carefully distinguished from English ă, ŏ, ŭ.

THE VALUES OF THE LETTERS

A a

170. a ('*ā*') is the mid-back-wide vowel (§ 134 &c., 145).

1) When long it is like a in 'art': Väter, Wägen, Haare, Fahne, Tāg, fāß, Sō'phā, Chā'os, bōs'ār'tig (§ 142).

2) When short it is pronounced just the same, only more quickly, about as in 'artistic': Handel, all, Taxe, Anatōm', (§ 144).

Note 1. The "standard" German a has the quality of English a in 'art' as spoken in most of southern England and our northern States. But in parts of North Germany it tends to become a mixed vowel, as in eastern New England, or even a front vowel resembling a in 'hat', for ex., in Hanover. On the other hand, in most parts of Middle and South Germany and in some parts of North Germany, it has become somewhat lower and has acquired more or less rounding (§ 112), as in our southern States.

Note 2. The learner should be careful not to pronounce short a long, as English-speaking people are apt to do (Männ not Mānn, Hănd not Hānd); nor like a in 'handle' or a in 'all' see N 1.

Note 3. For Karbātſche and others with ātſch, and for the names Glātz, Grātz, see § 137 N 3; for brāch (adj. and verb), Schmāch, ſprāch, Sprāche, ſtāch, drāſch (also ă in the North)

see §§ 137 N 1, 126, 1, Gemāch is rare, for năch see § 144 N 1*a*; for Jāgd (oftener Jăgd), Māgd (also ă in the South), Măgdeburg (usually ā), Pāpſt, see § 139*b*; for ātmen, ādlig, Adler, &c., see § 137 R 2; Abner, Abraham, Atreus, Natron, &c. have ā according to § 91, 3, but Atlas, Patmos and others with stop + nasal, have ă, also Săfron but usually Āfrika; for Ārt, Bārt, Hārt (as a name also written Hārdt; but the adj. hărt), Schārte (but Schieß'ſchărte), Stārt, zārt, Hārz, Quārz, Bārſch (but bărſch), see § 140*b*, in the names Arl=, Arns=, Starnberg, and in Scharte, Schwarte, Arzt, Warze, Karſt, ă is still often heard. In Hebrew words aa often = two vowels: Kā'năăn, Bāăl or *bāl*, Iſăăk or *īzăk*, &c. For Grammăt'ik =iſch, Metăph'er, Săph'ir, M & SG dramăt'iſch, Autokrăt', &c., see § 138 N 2*b*,*c*; for Ār'aber, Măm'ā, Păp'ā (both also ˘–', § 313 R), Găl'ā, Tſchăk'ō, Kăk'adū, Kăk'erlăk, Kăn'apee, Kăn'evas, Păl'etot, Tăb'ăk or Tăbăk', see § 144 N 3*b*; for Fiăk'er, Klăque, &c., see § 138 N 2*c* R *b*; for dă 'there now!', nă 'well?' or 'quit!', the angry hă!, the impatient jă, the contemptuous băh, păh, see § 137 N 2; for ăb, ăn and ăm, dăs and dăß, hăb', hăt, jă 'you know', măn, wăs, and the military salute Wer' dă?, see § 144, also ā in parts of the South and the Midland in an, man, das, was, hat; for Băß, Păß, the name Hăm, Kăp (also ā), see § 138 N 3, but usually Gās, Spāß (and so ſpaßen); for As see § 41, 3 N; for NG Glăs &c. see § 138 N 1; for bărfuß, wăhrlich, Lăbſal, &c., see § 139*a*, N; for Năchbar, Năch'mittāg' (both also ā), Dămbock, Mărſtall, Wălfiſch, the name Bămberg, &c., see § 139*a* N 2, 3; for Kăſtănie, Spănien, &c., see § 139 N 2 ft; for the ă in paar &c., see § 144 N 1; for grăziös' but Grā'zie, &c., see § 144 N 1*b*; for Jăhr'hun'dert &c. see § 142. Under secondary stress a is often shortened in adjectives in =ſăm(e) but not in words in =bār, =iān, =ſāl; it is always short in names like Bertrăm, Wolfrăm, usually short in Biſăm, Bräutigăm (§ 47 N), Eidăm, Nachbăr, sometimes in Balſăm, Leichnăm, Monăt, Krīmskrāms, not in Griesgrām, Heimāt (but ă in the South), Heirāt, Zierāt, § 142 N. See also the adopted words in § 314.

Remark. Unstressed ă is occasionally dropped, § 114.

171. In Greek and Latin words **ae** is usually two vowels (the diphthongs *ai* and *ae* being printed ä in German): = *ă'*e in Aeronaut', *ā'*e in Hexaedron, *ăĕ'* in Hexaeder, Mich'ael, *ăĕ'* in Laer'tes, Is'mael; in some Dutch names ae = *ā*: Laeken,

Maeſtricht (now usually Maaſtricht), rarely Vlaemen and vlaemiſch (more usually Vlämen, vlämiſch, with *ë*). As a spelling for ä, ae maintained itself longest as a capital, § 22 & R.

172. ai (‘*ā'–ī'*’) is a diphthong = *a* + *i̯* or *o̯*, § 146 N, and has about the sound of English ‘I’, ‘eye’, but the first element is a purer *a*-sound in German than in English, and one or both elements are apt to be longer than in English: Mai, Kaiſer, der Main. Cf. § 174.

Remarks. (1) This sound is usually represented by ei, § 188. (2) In et'wăĭg and in some foreign words, ai = two vowels, though the most familiar may have the diphthong: năĭv', Moſăĭk', Nā'ĭn, Kā'ĭn or *kai̯n*. (3) In words from the French ai = ä (ā in Palais' *palē*, ă in Draiſi'ne and English Draina'ge, which is pronounced French), § 48, 5. For ail see § 206 N 2, for ain see § 207 N 1.

173. au (‘*ā'–ū'*’) is a diphthong = *a* + *u̯* or *o̯*, § 146 N, and has the sound of ou in ‘house’: Haus, Raum, laut, Frau, laufen.

Remarks. (1) German au begins with a nearly pure *a*-sound (which is apt to be long), a fact that must not be overlooked by those who do not pronounce English ou so. (2) In some Greek-Latin words, au = two vowels: Menelā'ŭs, Kaper'năŭm, Nikolā'ŭs or -auſ'. (3) In older German some of the words that now have au had *ou̯*, others *ū*, and similar pronunciations are heard in the dialects to-day: *lou̯f·n* or *lōf·n* for laufen, *hūs* for Haus. (4) In words from the French, au = *o* and, if accented, is long: Chauſſee *foſē'*, Sauce *zōſə*, § 48, 4. So eau in Plateau &c.

174. ay = ai, but is now used only in proper names: Bayern, May(e)r. Some persons that have the name Maier or Mayer (really the same as Meier < Latin *major dominus* = ‘steward’) insist on having it pronounced *mā'j·r*, to distinguish it from Meier or Meyer which is often a Jewish name (Hebrew *Mēir* ‘Lightgiver’).

175. aw = *ā* in Shawl < English.

Ä

176. ä ('$\bar{a}$' or 'mutated $\bar{a}$', § 120, 3) is the mid-front-wide vowel, §§ 134 &c., 145.

1) When long it = e in 'very' prolonged, a sound similar to ei in 'their': gären, Gefährte, blähen, Sä'er, Käſe, trägſt, bä, wäre, Gefräß, geſägt, &c.

2) When short it = e in 'very': Ärmel, Hände, Kälte, älter, Fächer, ängſtlich, Wäſche, Geſchwätz.

Remarks. (*a*) In some parts of Germany (for ex., Silesia) there is a tendency to pronounce long ä like long e, that is, to make it the mid-front-*narrow* vowel, §§ 135, 111. (*b*) Most speakers pronounce ä before r wider, or more open, than elsewhere. For ae, see § 171.

Note. Various words have long ä because derived from long a: bräche, Geſpräch, ſprächе, ſtächе, (rarely gemächlich)), dräſche, § 170 N 3; Mädchen (ă in parts of the South) < Magd, nächſt (ă in parts of the South), nämlich (also ă in the North), Rätſel (ă in parts of the South), § 139 *a* N, zärtlich, Gebärde, § 140 *b*. Observe gemäß < Maß, Geſäß but Faß, and see § 228 N. For the name Königgrätz, ätſch 'aha' (in derision), Kardätſche, Kartätſche, &c., see § 137 N 3. Phädrus &c. have ă according to § 91, 3, but Ätna and others with stop + nasal have ă. For ă in Äſchylus &c. see § 138 N 2 *c* R *a* end.

177. äu ('$\bar{a}^{i}$–$\bar{u}^{u}$') is a diphthong = wide *o* + *ü̯* or *ö̯* (*i̯* or *e̯*, R 2) § 146 N, as in 'oil', 'boy': Häute, Fräulein, Fäuſtel, käuflich, Mäuſe, Mäuschen, &c.

Remarks. (1) This diphthong is also spelled eu (see also §§ 32, 190); but neither spelling is anything like the pronunciation. (2) äu differs from ai in having the lips rounded during the formation of at least the first half of the diphthong, a distinction that is, however, generally neglected in the Midland and the South. (3) äu = two vowels in some adopted words: Jubilä'ŭm, Matthä'ŭs.

B

178. b (*'bē'*) is the bilabial stop, §§ 149, 152 *b*.

1) It is usually voiced (§ 150) = English b (but see § 165, 2 *c*): Bube, Brot, haben, Ebbe, ü'bler, ü'brig, Knō'blauch, O'brigkeit, Teu'bner, Klŭ=bbiſt', Sā'bbat. But see § 150 N 3.

2) When final (§ 108, 2) or next a voiceless consonant (§ 119), it becomes voiceless, = p: ăb, ăb'ge'hen, hăb' (§ 89 N 3), ob, ūb'lich, Ab'laut, Erb'ſe, Äb'te, Läb'ſal, trūb'ſelig, leb'los; gehăbt', Herbſt, Obſt.

Remarks. (1) In many dialects medial b is an open consonant (§ 149, 2), that is, w; in some parts bilabial, in some dentilabial, § 239: awer, Jaw(e)rik, cf. § 30, 9 end. This w is occasionally voiceless, especially in the South-West. (2) A b may be lost through assimilation, § 121: Abend, haben, &c.

C

179. c (*'tsē'*) occurs only in the digraphs ch ck and in adopted words.

Remark. Many words formerly written with c are now written with ſ, z, or k, according to the sound, § 48, 7, 11, 12. *Ç* in French words = *s*, § 48, 12.

1) Before front vowels in a few words from the —

(*a*) Latin and early Romance, also now in most words from the French (see *b* below), c = *ts*: Cent, Centner, Ciſterne; Centimeter, Cigarre, &c.

Remarks. (1) ſc before front vowels = *sts*, but sometimes becomes *ss*, that is, long *s* (§ 155 R), § 121 end: Disciplin, Scenerie, or *ts*: Scene, Scepter or Zepter, § 48, 11. (2) cc before front vowels = *kts* (with half *k* and half *t*, § 83): Accent, Occident; but the *t* often completely assimilates to the *k*. (3) xc before front vowels = *ksts* but is often contracted to *ks*: Exceß, Excellenz, excentriſch.

(*b*) French, c = *s* now mostly only before *-ə*: Balance, Chance, Capri'ce, &c., § 48, 12; for most French words now follow the analogy of those in (*a*) above, though *s* may still be heard in Cigarre, Officier (§ 242 ft), &c. The occasional pronunciation of c as *s* instead of *ts* in Elektricität, Elastizität, &c. is due to dissimilation, § 124.

(*c*) Italian, c = *ʧ*: Cello, Cellist, &c.; but some speakers use the Italian *tʃ* (especially for cc: Capriccio), while Cicerone usually follows the analogy of Latin words (see above) and is pronounced *tsitsərō'nə*.

2) Before *k* in Polish names, c = *ts*: Slowacki, Lipnicki, &c.

3) Elsewhere, c = *k*, § 48, 7: Couvert, Caprice, Accent, Accord. For cch, see § 181, 2*a*.

Ch

(1) *NATIVE WORDS*

180. ch ('*tse-hā'*', § 144 N 2 *b* end; less commonly '*ĥē*', cf. also § 181 R end) is a voiceless fricative, §§ 149, 150.

> Remark. The sound of ch is not just the same after any two vowels, but it will suffice to distinguish a front and a back ch, § 83. Cf. also § 180, 2 N 3.

(*ĥ*) 1) After front vowels and consonants, ch is front, or palatal, § 152, that is, like y in 'yet' but voiceless, § 150: ich, Echo, Bäche, Bücher, möchte*, leicht, euch *oiĥ*, Gebräuche; solche, manche, &c. So also always in the suffix -chen, that

* A pupil should not be asked to pronounce nicht, or other combinations of ch, until he can pronounce ch with a vowel only, as in ich; when he can pronounce ich well, he may learn nicht by pronouncing nich and pausing before he adds the t. In time he will not need to pause; but if a beginner think of the t while he is pronouncing the ch, he is sure to spoil it all.

is, even after back vowels: Hühnchen, Frauchen, Mama'chen; not, of course, in words like rauchen, Aachen, &c., in which -en, not -chen, is the ending (but cf. Gracchen in the Word-list).

Note. The sound may best be learned by whispering 'key' and dwelling on the sound that follows the *k*. Some speakers begin 'human', 'huge', &c. with *ĥ* instead of *hj*.

Remarks. (1) In certain parts of Middle Germany, palatal ch approaches in sound to *ʃ*, particularly after l or n: ich, Milch, manche, and this provincialism may even be heard on some stages. See 2 N 2 below. For ich *ĭχ*, Echo *'ĕχō*, see 2 N 3 R. (2) In Chemnitz a Saxon town and Chur a Swiss town, ch = *k̆*. For ni't see § 231 N 2.

(χ) 2) After back vowels, ch is back, or velar, § 152 *c* (the sound heard from Scotchmen in 'loch' &c.): lachen, Loch, Buch, auch.

Note 1. The sound may best be learned by whispering 'koo', 'ko', or 'kah', and dwelling on the sound that follows the *k*.

Note 2. The learner must be very careful not to use a *k*-sound or an *ʃ*-sound for *χ* or *ĥ*. The habit once formed is seldom overcome, and is equivalent to a German's saying 'tissles and torns', or 'sissles and sorns' for 'thistles and thorns'. Some students are apt to learn one of the ch-sounds and then use this for both; for ex., sounding auch *auĥ* for *auχ*, or manche *manʃə* for *manĥə*. Some beginners, having conquered ch in nicht &c., substitute it for *k* in nickt, zurück, &c. Cf. § 129 end.

Note 3. After u, a *χ* partakes of the rounding of the u, §§ 136, 119 (the same compound sound that served as the transition between the *gh* of Middle English and the *f* of Modern English in 'cough' &c.). The sound may be heard from Scotchmen for *wh*. Cf. also § 180 R.

Remark. In Switzerland and adjoining parts of Germany, *χ* is still used after front vowels and consonants, for ex., ich *ĭχ* or *ĭəχ* for *ĭĥ*; in NE Germany *χ* is used after front vowels if a back vowel follows: Echo *'ĕχō* for *'ĕĥō*.

(2) *ADOPTED WORDS*

181. 1) Initially in words from the ancient languages and in Old-German names that have come through Greek and Latin sources: —

(*a*) Before front vowels, ch = *ĥ*: Chemie, Cherub, Cheruſker, &c., so also China, Chinin'.

(*b*) Before consonants and back vowels, ch = *k*: Charakter, Cholera, Chriſt, Chor, Charta, Chlodwig, &c.

> Remark. But in these foreign words there is naturally much wavering in usage, in part due to the infrequency of some of the words, in part to attempts at teaching foreign or ancient pronunciation in the schools. At the South *k* is very often used in (*a*) as well as in (*b*); and such words as Chalkis, Charon, &c., are often sounded *χā'ron*, *ĥχāron*, or *ĥā'ron*, and even *ſ* may be heard, as though the words were French, thus in Charyb'dis. In some parts, for example, in Posen, an *ſ* made with the tip of the tongue against the lower teeth is used for initial ch before front vowels, and is also heard in the name 'chē' for ch, § 180.

2) Medially and finally in Greek words: —

(*a*) After a back vowel, ch = *χ*: Achilles, Machination; so generally ch in Bacchus, Gracchus (cf. Word-list), &c.

(*b*) Elsewhere, ch = *ĥ*: Pſyche, Orcheſter, Arche, Melanchthon, &c., and so Mich'ael. But before back vowels usage varies, thus ch frequently = *k* in Dechant, melancholiſch, Hypochondrie, &c.; also often in Anachronismus. Cf. R above.

3) In words from the French, ch = *ſ*, § 48, 13: Chauſſee, Cheſ, Attaché.

4) So sometimes in English words: Check, Cheſterkäſe, and 'punch' is even spelled Punſch; but English ch is usually taught as *tſ*, even in words where we have *ſ* (cf. p. 108 ft): Chicago, Michigan, &c.

182. chſ or chs ('*tsĕ'-hă-'ĕs*', § 343) is now generally pronounced *ks**, § 124: Ochſe 'ox', Wachs 'wax', ſechs 'six',

* The corresponding English word generally has *x*; see also § 39.

wachſen 'wax', or 'grow'; but ch usually remains a fricative in those words that have a related form without ſ or s (§ 126, 2): Buch-s, wach-ſam, Nach-ſicht, näch-ſt, &c.

Remark. The older pronunciation of chs as *χs* is still heard in Switzerland. There is a (NW) dialectic *zĕſis* due to the influence of *zeſitsiſi* &c. (§ 126, 2); on the other hand, in the South the analogy of nāch is not strong enough to keep nächſt from becoming *nĕkst*. The pronunciation *niks* for nich(t)s is vulgar, as is also *niſt* < *niſist* < nichts by metathesis, § 125 end.

183. ck (*'tsē-kā'*) = *k*, § 46 N 3: Ecke, Fackel, Ruck. So too ckh in the name Beckh.

D

184. d (*'dē'*) is the point stop, §§ 149, 152 *b*.

1) It is usually voiced (§ 150) = English *d* (but see § 165, 2 *c*, *d*): Kinder, du, Drache, edel, Troddel, Widder, a-ddie'ren, E'dda, Sa'dducā'er; so also in ē'dler for ē'deler, an'drer, ā'dlig, Ā'dler, Jō'dler, Frie'drich, &c., § 137 R 2.

2) When final (§ 108, 2) or next a voiceless consonant (§ 119), it becomes voiceless, = t: Kind, kind'lich, Tod 'death' just like tot 'dead', end'lich, wid'men, vollends, blind'lings, Sünd'ende, Hed'wig, Lud'wig. So dt = *t*: geſandt, Stadt.

Remark. In some words from the French, d is silent: Fonds *fon(s)*. Also in ſin(d) die and often in un(d) before a consonant, as in English 'an(d)', § 114.

E

185. e (*'ē'*), when stressed, is the mid-front vowel, §§ 134 &c., 145.

1) When long it is (the mid-front-narrow vowel, § 135) like e in 'they': ledig, See, Lehm, Kaff'ee, Paket', adē', Bankier, § 221 N 1.

2) When short, it is just like short ä (§ 176, 2, that is, the mid-front-wide vowel): behende, Eltern, Heft, Herr; but it is often more or less narrow in South Germany.

Note 1. English 'they', 'pay', 'pate', &c. are often pronounced with a diphthong (most distinctly so in southern England, some parts of Massachusetts, about Philadelphia, &c.) which begins with an *e*-sound but ends with *ĭ*, or begins with *æ* and ends with *e*: the German e is a pure vowel, ending as it begins, § 166*a*. The German e is usually somewhat higher (§ 134, 2) than the corresponding English sound.

Note 2. In older German there were two e's, one of which we should now expect to be pronounced ē (narrow), but the other ē̈ (wide: so, ge'ben, Gebet', er), and this distinction is still kept up pretty well in parts of Germany; but, in general, great confusion has arisen, and the best thing a foreigner can do is to follow the usual practice of the stage and pronounce all ē's as *ē* (allowing only more of an ä — or wide — sound before r, as in ēr, Pfērd, &c.; cf. English 'air', 'there', &c., as contrasted with 'they', &c.), as, in fact, many Germans do. Nevertheless, this wide sound of ē will be represented by *ë* in the Word-list.

Note 3. The corresponding distinction between narrow and wide *short* e is much less common. But a narrow, or close, ĕ is heard in foreign words, § 144 N 2*b*: so the first e in Theā'ter, Elektricität', &c.; so also in ch '*tse-hā'*', sch '*ĕs'-tse-hā'*'. Moreover, ĕ is usually wider before r than elsewhere. See also § 111.

Note 4. Be careful not to pronounce e before r as in English 'her', thus Herr has he= as in 'help', and Bĕrlīn' is not pronounced in German 'Bŭr'lĭn' nor 'Bŭrlĭn'.

Note 5. In adopted words ee = *ē* in Armee', Idee', Kraker', Paneel', also in Kaffee; *ē* or *ē'ə* in Kamee, Panacee; e*ĕ'* in ideell', reell'; e*ĕ'* or *ĕ* in Beelzebub; *ī* in Beefsteak, Spleen, Yankee, &c. é = *ē* occurs in foreign words (Carré) and é is sometimes written in German names lest the e be slighted or dropped (Hänfsché, Jaffé).

Note 6. In the following originally Slavic names the e is long: Drēsden, Esthe, Estländer, Pēgnitz, Rēgnitz, Stēgnitz, Tēplitz, Trēbnitz, for some cf. § 139*b* (all often have ĕ away from the places); also in Schwēdt, Schwēz, &c. For Kēbsweib, Krēbs, nēbst, berēdt (all also ĕ, esp. in the South), stēts, Ems (now generally short, both the town and the river), see § 139*a*, for begēgnen, ēdler, rēgnen, the town Quēdlinburg,

see § 137 R 2, e is also long in Mēcklenburg; for Mē'trum, Zē'bra, &c., see § 91, 3, so too Beth- has ē in Hebrew names like Bēthlehem; for Beſchwērde, Erde, Hērd, Pferd, wērden, Schwērt, Wērt and wērt, and the names Vērden, Wērden, Kaiſers- Nonnenwērth, &c., see § 140 *b*, in Erz, erſt, Ferſe, Vers, less commonly Schwert, ĕ is still often heard; Erz-biſchof &c. have ĕ. For Cĕs, Dĕs, &c., Chĕf, Sĕm 'Shem', see § 138 N 3; for Billet, Bouquĕt, Hotĕl, Reliĕf, see § 138 N 2 *c*; for Stĕphan but Epheu, and often Ēpheſus, see §§ 137 N 1, 138 N 2 *c*; for dĕr, dĕs, dĕm, dĕn, ĕs, gĕn, wĕs, see § 144 N 1; for dreizehn, hĕrab, &c., see § 142 *b* end; for Hĕrberge, Hĕrzog and names like Hĕrmann, Hĕrford, &c., but Heer, jĕnſeit but jener, Jĕnzig but Jena, ĕtwas, &c., Rĕbhuhn, &c., and for the names: Elſaß, Gĕbhard, Gĕrhard -trud, Hĕdwig, Schlĕswig, &c., see § 139 *a* N; for wĕg see § 138 ft. The e is usually short under secondary stress in Eliſabĕth, and in Greek-Latin final -em -es.

186. Unstressed e is always short, and *

1) in the prefixes be- ge- (less often in foreign de-, ge- *je*, re-, § 144 N 2 *b*);

2) in the endings -e -el -em -en -end -ent -er -ern -ert -es -eſt -et;

3) in the proclitics der, des, dem, den, and in es;

4) medially in some German and French words; —

it is very quickly and obscurely (§ 113) pronounced, much as is final -*a* in English, as in 'comma': **Behälter, gegangen, genieren, Refrain** (§ 91, 3), **Vogel, Albert, alles, in der Hand', Miſſethat, Böſewicht, Hildebrand, Göſchenen, Reineke, Appartement, Kamelott, Promenade.**

187. This sound is represented by *ə* when it is desired to distinguish it from *ĕ*. It is not always the same sound: —

1) Final -e and the e of es are the mid-mixed vowel (§§ 134, 145, 113). It is even more lightly dwelt upon than English final -*a*, being often uttered only with what is left of

* In the speech of very many — possibly of most — people, the statement is true of *all* unstressed e's in native words, for ex., in **empfing, ermeßlich, entwarf, Verband, zerteilt,** etc.

the breath-impulse of the preceding stressed syllable, § 87. It is not well to insist on its similarity to the u in 'hut' or to any other stressed vowel, for this will almost invariably lead the learner to put secondary stress upon it.

Note 1. (*a*) In some South-German dialects (just as in English) final e has become absolutely silent: Büb', Näm', heut', &c. § 113; and these forms are allowed in poetry. South Germans, in attempting to restore -e, are apt to make it the short mid-front (either wide or narrow) vowel, § 129*c*; a similar pronunciation may be heard in Silesia and elsewhere. (*b*) In the North and the Midland, -e is generally dropped only in certain cases, as in hăb' for hābe; in other verbs, usually only before another vowel: Das möcht' ich thun; hätt' er mir's nur gesagt. (*c*) Final *ə* occasionally becomes voiceless, § 108, 2 *b*.

Note 2. The e of es is rarely heard except initially, and even there it may be dropped, § 114. See also § 187, 2 N 2.

Note 3. (*a*) In familiar Greek and Latin words, -e = *ə*: Hele'ne, Ire'ne, often promis'cue; but Athē'nē, and usually Facsi'milē, § 144 N 4. (*b*) In most words from the French, final -e = *ə* though now silent in French: Etage, Chaise, Marquise, Mine, Rasse, Serviette; but -e is silent in Service and often in Omelette.

2) Between two consonants unstressed e represents only a vowel glide (§ 80); that is, no particular vowel position is held, but the organs of speech simply pass from the position for the preceding consonant to that for the following, while the vocal chords vibrate: beſtraft, gethan, altes, &c.

Note 1. (*a*) In some localities, e in be- ge- as well as in the foreign de- re- &c. (§ 144 N 2 *b*) is *ĕ* or even e. (*b*) Foreign -es is usually *ĕs* (but often *əs* in familiar words): Hades, Achilles, Johannes.

Note 2. In -es (also the word es, § 187, 1 N 2), be-, ge-, &c., e is often voiceless, § 108, 2 *b* end.

Note 3. In some South-German dialects, e is silent in some prefixes: g'kommen, g'bracht, and such names as Gfrörer*; and in the participles the g too may disappear.

* Compare the loss of e in bleiben for be-leiben, glauben for ge-lauben, gleich for ge-leich, Gnade for Ge-nade, grade for gerade, &c.

Note 4. In suffixes, this e is often quite silent provided the adjoining consonants can readily be pronounced next one another with practically no glide, and the rhythm of the sentence does not require the syllable: hab(e)t, gab(e)ſt, often Hund(e)s, Rad(e)s, and, in the South, alt(e)s; still it is usually retained, or restored (§ 126, 2), if the adjoining consonants are identical or would become so when next one another: Haſſes, Loſes, reitet, ſchadet (the short form ſchădt is common enough, especially in [Es] ſchadt nichts 'It's no matter'). (*a*) Thus in the superlative of adjectives and adverbs the e is generally retained after an *s*-sound: ſüßeſte, friſcheſte, (but notice beſte < baß, and größte rather than größeſte); still eſ is usually dropped after the unstressed suffix -iſch: der närriſchte &c. (*b*) But eſ of the verbal ending -eſt is frequently omitted after an *s*-sound: du reiſeſt or reiſt, du faſſeſt or faßt, du ſitzeſt or ſitzt, du wäſcheſt, wäſchſt, or wäſcht. See also § 155 R.

Note 5. Before l, m, n, r, the glide becomes insignificant or entirely disappears, while the sonorous consonant becomes syllabic and may be written ·*l*, ·*m*, ·*n*, ·*r*. Thus, as English 'temple' is *temp·l*, 'ryhthm' *riδ·m*, and 'highten' *haɨt·n* with no vocalic break between *t* and *n* (§ 83), so begonnen is pronounced *bəgon·n* oftener than *bəgonən*, heißen *haɨs·n*, Büchelchen *büĥ·lĥ·n*, berittenen *bərit(·)n·n*, and Vogel *fōg·l*, and so written in Bavarian and Austrian names: Vogl, Haydn, Seidl, &c. Similarly d·r, d·m, and d·n Mann'. Often assimilation takes place, §§ 119, 121.

Remark. In E'len(tier), E'lend, fau'lenzen, &c., the e has a slight stress and is *e* not *ə*; amen is *ā'měn* or *ā'm·n* in speech, *ā'měn* or *ā'mën* in singing.

eau, § 173 R 4.

188. ei ('*ē'–ī'*') is a diphthong, the same as ai, which see; cf. also § 33. So eins, Fei'er, Freiheit, mein.

Remark 1. ei is now distinguished in pronunciation from ai only dialectically. There is no diphthong in geirrt < irren, &c., nor in Atheiſt', Deis'mus, &c. For French eil see § 206 N 2, ein, em, en, § 207 N. The name of the town Reins is pronounced German *raɨns* or, in imitation of the French, *rěɳs*, § 207 R.

Remark 2. The unstressed article ein (§ 113 end) may become *ən* or ·*n* and, before a consonant, *ə*; and eine may become (')·*nə* or *nə*.

Remark 3. In older German some of the words that now have ei (= *a̯i* § 147) had *e̯i* (nearly as in 'eight'), others had *ī*, and similar pronunciations are heard in the dialects to-day, for ex., *e̯ins* or *ēns* for eins (= *a̯ins*), *gəmēn* for gemein; *mīn*, *drī* for mein, drei.

189. **eo** = *ē'o* in Theodor &c.

190. **eu** ('*ē'–ū'*') is a diphthong, the same as äu, which see; cf. also § 32. So heute, Feuer, Leute, Euro'pa.

Note. This sound (eu or äu) differs from ei (or ai) in having the lips rounded (§ 136) during the formation of at least the first half of the diphthong, a distinction that is, however, generally neglected in the Midland and the South, § 136, 2. In geurteilt, &c., eu is not a diphthong, nor in Tedē'um, Baccalau'reus, &c.

Remark. In words from the French, eu = *ə̄̆*: adieu *'a-djə̄̆* or *'at-jə̄̆*; see also § 48, 6.

191. **ey** = **ei**; it was formerly used to distinguish some words graphically, as seyn 'to be' from sein 'his', §§ 20, 31, 5. It still occurs in names: Heyne, Norderney', Speyer, &c., also in some foreign words: Jockey (*dʒŏkē* or *-a̯i*). Cf. § 174.

F

192. **f** ('*ĕf*') is the dentilabial voiceless fricative = English *f*: fort, frei, Hafen, hoffen, Schiff.

Remarks. (*a*) A distinction of strong *f* (< Germanic *p*: hoffen) and weak *f* (< Germanic *f*: finden) exists dialectically, for ex., in the SW. (*b*) The sound *f* is also written v, which see; cf. also § 37.

G

193. **g** ('*gē*'). The pronunciation of g is not uniform throughout Germany. In treating of the various sounds represented by the letter there is need of various symbols:

g will be used to represent the voiced stop (§ 194, 1 N), *j* γ *ɦ* χ to represent the open consonants, of which *j* and γ are voiced, *ɦ* and χ voiceless, while *j* and *ɦ* are front (more specifically, top, or palatal), and γ and χ back.

(1)

194. 1) The standard of the stage (§ 160) is: —

a) Before a vowel and before a voiced consonant the voiced back stop *g*, like English *g* in 'go', §§ 149, 196, etc.: gehen, ſagen, gleich, Wagner, Ab'ga'be;

> Note. As in English, the g before a front vowel is made farther forward in the mouth (the top, or palatal, *ǵ*: Gift, geben, Güte, give, gave, &c.) than that before a back vowel (the back *g*: gab, Gott, gut, God, good, &c.), cf. § 205 N; but as every speaker involuntarily makes the distinction, it need not be further regarded (§ 24 end), and so *g* is used for both *g* and *ǵ* in the phonetic transcription.

(*b*) When final or before a voiceless consonant, the voiceless back stop *k*, like English *k*: Weg, Tag, ſagte, Zug, Vogt, Jagd;

In the ending ig: —

(*c*) The voiced fricative *j* (cf. § 197, 1) when before a vowel: Könige, billiger, and

(*d*) The voiceless fricative *ɦ* (cf. § 197, 2) at the end of a word or before a voiceless consonant: König, Königs, billig.

> Remark. Moreover, the more general use of the fricative, as stated in §§ 197–8, is making some headway even in good theatres.

2) This is the natural pronunciation of the province of Silesia, and the practice of South Germany is about the same (but cf. § 150 N 3), though -ig is not everywhere distinguished from (*a*) and (*b*). In the artificial pronunciation of High German in Hanover, Mecklenburg, and other parts

of North Germany (§ 163), *g* has been adopted as in (*a*) above, but for the *k* of (*b*) the native Low-German fricatives (*ĥ*, *χ*) have been retained; in some districts (for ex., Hanover) -ig is treated as in (*c*) and (*d*), in others as in (*a*) and (*d*).

Remark. The pronunciation of g as a stop in all situations (= *g* initially and medially; = *k* finally) is the original usage, cf. p. 93 ft.

(2)

195. The pronunciation of by far the larger part of North Germany and Middle Germany and of some portions of South Germany is as follows: —

a) *NATIVE WORDS*

(A)

196. Initially g is a stop, § 149, 1.

(*g*) At the beginning of a word (see also § 199), g is the voiced back stop, §§ 149, 150, 152 *c* = *g* in 'go', § 165, 2 *c*: gut, Gang, geben, gebeten, Geburt; Gnade, gleich, groß; similarly at the beginning of the second part of a compound: Abgabe, begraben, vergeſſen, vergnügen, ausgraben (§ 150 N 2 *c*, *d*), &c.

Remarks. In some dialects, chiefly North German, even initial g is a fricative, = *j γ* or even *ĥ χ*; in parts of the Midland ge- = *jə* before g or k: gekommen, gegangen, &c., § 124. In Rückgrat, g is often silent, that is, *kg* > *kk* (§ 150 N 2 *d*) > *k* (§ 156, 3). Dialectically *gn-* > *dn* > *n*, cf. § 205 N 2.

(B)

Elsewhere g is a fricative, § 149, 2: —

(1.)

197. After front vowels and consonants, a front (or top, § 152 *b*) fricative: —

(*j*) 1) Before a vowel, this front fricative is voiced, that is, *j*, a sound much like y in 'yet' but more distinctly consonantal: weniger, Könige, Wege, Berge, Talges, borgen, Egge (R *b*); also regnen for regenen (see R *c*), Gegner, &c.

Remarks. (*a*) This sound is the same as that of NG. *j*; it differs from (2) below in that it is voiced, a distinction that is often neglected in the Midland, § 150 N 3. (*b*) South Germans and many North Germans also make gg in words from Low German the stop: voiced (= g in 'go') in Egge, Schmuggler, Roggen, &c.; voiceless (= *k*) in Brigg, flaggt, &c., and the SG Brixlegg. And most Germans do the same in adopted words: Aggregat, Nigger, Waggon. (*c*) In words like regnen, Wagner, &c., the fricative g (that is, *j* or γ) often joins the preceding syllable, and thus, being final, is pronounced voiceless (that is, *ch* or χ). When pronounced as a stop, g goes with the following sonorous consonant and remains voiced.

(*ch*) 2) When final (§ 108, 2) or next a voiceless consonant (§ 119), it becomes voiceless (= *ch*, § 180, 1): wenig, Königs, Wēg, lēgte, Berg, Talg, borgte, Zeug (§ 147 N), Zeug'nis, folg'sam.

Remark. But g usually = *k* in Low-German Brigg (R *b* above) and often in the adverb wĕg, § 194, 2 R; see also § 198, 2 R.

(II.)

198. After back vowels, g is a back fricative, § 152 *c*: —

(γ) 1) Before a vowel this back fricative is voiced and sounds like an English y far back in the mouth: Tage, logen, fragen; Flagge, Roggen (§ 197, 1 R *b*); also Wāgner < Wagener (but see § 197, 1 R *c*). See also § 221, 2 end & § 199 *a* R.

Remark. This sound differs from (2) below only in that it is voiced, a distinction that is often neglected in the Midland (§ 150 N 3).

(χ) 2) When final (§ 108, 2) or next a voiceless consonant (§ 119), g becomes voiceless (= χ, § 180, 2): Tāg, lōg, Lūg, frāgt, Wāg'nis, Aug'apfel, wāg'halsig. See also § 221, 2 end.

Remark. But g = *k* in the originally Low-German words ablugſen and bugſieren, in the names Augsburg, Jagſt, O'dag'ſen, &c., and usually in the adverb flügs, § 194, 2 R; see also § 197 2 R.

For ng see § 209 & Notes.

b) *ADOPTED WORDS*

199. 1) **g** (*a*) In words from the Greek, Latin, &c., medial g beginning a syllable having chief or secondary stress, is usually treated as initial (§ 90), that is, it is the voiced stop (= g in 'go'): agrariſch, Ägypten, Philologie, Regiſter, Pilgrim, &c., so too gg: Aggregat. (*b*) Before a weak vowel, g is truly medial and, so, very frequently a fricative (§§ 197–8): γ in Logik, Tragik, &c., *j* or γ in Egoiſt. And many North and Middle Germans use a fricative even in the words in *a* above. (*c*) Finally g equals *ĥ*, χ, or *k* (§§ 197, 2, 198, 2, 194*b*): Mag=dalene, Dog=ma, Phleg=ma, &c.; but some of these may be otherwise divided, § 91, 3: Do=gma, Phle=gma, &c. with *g*.

(*d*) In words from the French, g before a front vowel (so too ge before a back vowel) is pronounced *ʒ* (like s in 'pleasure'), but the native *ſ* is often substituted (see § 129*c* & cf. § 204 N 2): Bagage *bagā'ʒə* and others in =age, genie'ren, Orange *'oraŋ'ʒə*, Lo'ge, Logis', Pa'ge, ge'nerös' (also *g*), Genie', Regie' (but not in geniāl' and Ge'nius, regie'ren and Regie'rung, which are from the Latin); Sergeant *zerʒant'*. Eugēn and Eugēnie have French *ʒ*, but also German *g* or *j*. Elsewhere g in French words = g in 'go': Garderobe, Reglement, &c.

(*e*) In words from the English or the Italian, g before a front vowel (Gentleman; Ada'gio, Gi'ro, &c.) is sometimes (especially if doubled: Arpegg'io) sounded *dʒ* or *tʃ*, but perhaps more commonly *ʒ* or *ſ*. as in French words, cf. above, § 204 N 3. Elsewhere in words adopted from or through

English and Italian, g = g in 'go': Gardine, Guttapercha, Nigger, Waggon, &c. In Humbug =g = χ or *k*, in Grog and Log *k*.

2) **gh** in foreign words = *g*: Ghasel, Ghetto; in Low-German names it is treated just as g would be: Behaghel with γ or *g*, Herwegh with *ɦ* or *k*, Schöningh with *ŋk* or *ŋχ*, § 209 N3, but also with *ŋ* only.

3) **gn** (*a*) In words from the Greek, Latin, &c., and in some French words having Latin form, gn = *ŋn*, in accordance with the pronunciation of Latin formerly in vogue: Magnet *maŋnēt'*, Signal *ziŋnāl'*, inkognito, indigniert, Agnes *'ăŋ'nĕs*; but in some parts the words are Germanized: *ziɦ-nāl'* or *zi-gnāl'* (§ 197 R *c* end), *'ăχ'nĕs*, &c. (and *gn* is often taught in schools in opposition to natural *ŋn*), while in other parts the words are treated as French (cf. *b* below): *zinjāl'*, &c. (*b*) In most French and Italian words, gn = *nj*: Champagner *ʃămpăn'jːr*, Mignon *mĭn'jŏŋ*, Compagnon *kŏm'-pănjŏŋ'*, but Compagnie (also written Kompanie) = *kŏm'pănī'*.

4) **gu** before front vowels in foreign words = g in 'go': Droguiſt *drogist'*, Guitarre *gităr'ə*, Intrigue *ĭntrī'gə*, Guillotine, Guirlande.

H

200. h (*'hā'*), see § 154. It is usually pronounced more distinctly in German than in English, and does not, as in English, appear to die away just before the following vowel. It occurs most commonly at the beginning of a word and always has more or less stress: Haus'halt', O'heim' (but Ohm with silent h). Final *h* may sometimes be heard in băh! (*a*) Non-initial stressed h occurs in aha', oho', U'hu', A'horn', Al'kohol', O'heim', Jeho'va, Johann', con'trahie'ren, ſub'trahie'ren, &c.; in the endings =heit and =haft, and, of course, in compounds such as wo=hin', da=heim', ab'hal'ten,

be=hal'ten, Ge=hör', andert=halb', &c. (*b*) Except in some of the dialects, unstressed h has become silent, just as it has as a general thing in English; the preceding vowel being long, the h came to be regarded as a sign of length (§ 45 & N2): ſe'hen, ſeh(e)t, Gemahl (MHG gemahele), and is written even in words in which it does not historically belong, so Mahl (< MHG māl) 'meal', mahlen 'grind'. (*c*) The h has secondary stress and is sounded always in Wilhelm, often in Berthold, Schultheiß, &c., not in Günther, Walther; it is also silent in Mathilde. (*d*) The h in the same syllable with a t, an r, or a w, is always silent: thun, Zither, Rhein, Katarrh, Whiſt.

J i

201. i (*'i'*) is the high-front vowel, §§ 134 &c., 145.

1) When long (usually written ie), it is narrow, like English e in 'me': vier, ſieht, dīr, Jūnī, Berlīn', Sophī'e.

2) When short, it is wide, as in 'hit': ticken, irren, Bildnis, Königin; but it is often narrow in South Germany. For other cases of short narrow i, see N2.

Remarks. (*a*) German i is usually somewhat higher (§ 134–5) than the corresponding English sound; see also § 165, 1 end. (*b*) Be careful never to pronounce German i before r as in English 'sir'; thus Hirſch has *hi-* as in 'hit,' cf. § 167*b*. (*c*) For French il see § 206 N2, im in § 207 N.

Note 1. In most native German words (Bier, Dieb, fließen) ie was in older German a diphthong, *iẹ*, § 146 & N, and is still so pronounced dialectically.

Note 2. Unstressed ĭ in the open syllable of a foreign word is usually narrow, § 144 N2, but in common words may, especially just next a stressed syllable, become wide: Minu'te *minū'tə* or *mĭnū'tə*.

Note 3. Unstressed i before a vowel but seldom (for ex., in *rĭə*: Glorie, Saurier, also in Rē'quĭ=ĕm) remains the vowel

ž, but has generally become unsyllabic (ǰ cf. § 204 N 1*c*, a sound so similar to the fricative *j* that it need not be distinguished from it, § 149, 2 N end), so Famī'lie = *jə*, Amā'lie, Stū'dium = *-jŭm*, Uniōn' = *-jōn'*, Millionär', Mat'eriāl', &c.; but next a voiceless consonant it, too, generally becomes more or less voiceless (cf. § 150 N 2 *b*): Penſion = *paŋs-jōn'*, Nation = *nats-jōn'*, Aktie = *'ăk'tsjə*. Usage is not absolutely uniform in these cases; for ex., some use *j* only after l, elsewhere ž, &c.

Note 4. (*a*) In Middle Germany and to some extent in North Germany, i in the ending -ig, less often in -iſch, tends to become silent, particularly when a vowel follows; and these forms are allowed in poetry: einz'ger = einziger, ēw'ge = ēwige, närr'ſch = närriſch. (*b*) In South Germany, a following e is more apt to be omitted, § 187, 2 N 4: ein mutig's Roß.

Note 5. For Nīſche, Nīſchel (both also ĭ) see § 137 N 1; for wīdrig < wider, bībliſch, &c. see § 137 R 2; for ĭ in dieſſeits see § 139 *a* N; for Hĭrſe see § 140 *b*, observe ĭrdiſch but ērdig. In Würtemberg the preterit of the I. class of strong verbs frequently has ī: bīß for bĭß, &c. For Bĭs, Cĭs, &c., Cĭd, Gĭg, Krĭm, see § 138 N 3; for ĭ in Schmied see § 138 N 1; for the frequent ĭ of gi(e)bſt &c., ſiebzig -zehn, the ĭ of Irland (but īriſch), the ĭ of adv. ziemlich, see § 139 *a* N 1; for the ĭ of Island (but Eis), kriegſt &c. (but ī in kriegen 'get': kriegen 'make war' has ī in *all* its forms), the ĭ of Viertel -zehn -zig (less often in vierter, vierteilen), see § 139 *a* N 2, for Hĭmbeere, Schwĭbbogen, Sĭngrün, and the names Wĭnfried, Grĭmbart, &c. see § 139 *a* N 3, for Wiesbaden see also § 158, 3 ft, for ĭ in Dienſtag see Word-list; for ihm, ihn (dialectic hĭn), ihr, mīr, wīr, ſie, die, see § 140, *a*, *c*, and § 144 N 1; for ĭ in hierher', vielleicht', Vielliebʼchen, see § 142; i is usually long under secondary stress in such names as Alwĭn, Balduĭn, Edwĭn, Martĭn, it is short in Jſegrĭm and the suffixes -ig -in -nis, &c.: Bäuerĭn, Finſternĭs, &c., and usually in Arnŭm, Joachĭm, and Pilgrĭm (§ 47 N); see also the adopted words in § 314; for bĭs, ĭn, &c., see § 144. For ĭ before ß, see § 228 N; for Mĭ'tra &c. see § 91, 3.

Note 6. There are a number of words of foreign origin having as the last syllable or the syllable before the last a stressed -i- followed by a single consonant. (*a*) According to the common rule for adopted words (§ 138 N 2) this i should be long, but (*b*) before k, t and sometimes p, t, the vowel is often pronounced short in Middle and South Germany

(§ 138 N 2 *b*): Fabrik', Katholik', Kritik', Muſik', Phyſik', Politik', Artik'el, Perpendik'el; Bandit', Profit', kritiſch, politiſch, Kondit'or, Lit'er, Tit'el, Viſit'e; Prinzip', &c.; but ī is more common in Middle Germany in Appetit', Diphtheri'tis, Hoſpiz', Muſik', Prinzip', and in the South in Kritik', Phyſik', Politik'; (*c*) in the North (§ 138 N 2 *c*) the i is short only in Apri'l', Krokodi'l', Li'l'a, Ci't'o, Kapi't'el, Zi'th'er, and chemical and mineralogical names ending in -it, so Granit', Calorit, Cererit' (but Cererīn, &c.). Clique has ī or ĭ, Sprit < Spiritus usually has ĭ.

202. ie (*'ī'-ē'*). See § 201, N 1.

1) Under chief stress, ie is (*a*) generally *ī* (§ 201, 1; for ie = *ĭ* see § 201 N 5), regularly so in native words, also in many French words: Offizier, Chemie, ſtudieren, &c.; but notice French Marie' Sophie' or (*b*) Latin Marī'e Sophī'e, and always St. Marī'e, St. Sophī'e and derivatives like Marī'en-Sophī'enkirche -burg &c.; plurals like Kolonien have *ī'ə* or *ī*, § 44, 3 N 1; (*c*) *ie* in Hygiene, *jē* before silent r of French words: Atelier, Bankier; (*d*) for the iè of French words, *ië*: Barriere, Carriere, or *jë*: Tantieme; (*e*) before more than one consonant in foreign words, *ie* or *ĭĕ*: Triennium, Serviette, Rienzi, Trieſt, *ĭĕ* or *jĕ*: Audienz, offiziell, Patient.

2) Under secondary stress, ie usually = ie': Piedeſtal', i'ə or *ĭ*: Hieroglyphen, but *ī* finally: Sell'erie.

3) When unstressed, ie = *ĭə*: Glorie, Ita'lien, Magier, Requiem (also *ĭĕ*), Societät', or *jə*: Fami'lie, Studien, Aktie.

For the interchange of *ĭ* and *j* see § 201 N 3.

203. ieu = eu = *oi̯* or *oï̯* in words from the French: Lieutenant, written also Leutnant.

J j

204. j (*'jŏt'*) is the voiced top fricative = a tightly squeezed English y: jung, jener, Majōr', Jōd 'iodine', Oranjefluß.

Note 1. (*a*) In the North, j is, as stated above, a distinctly squeezed fricative consonant. (*b*) In the Midland it is often voiceless (§ 150 N3) and not distinguished from ſ. (*c*) In the South, it is (as English y usually is) the "semi-vowel" *i̯* (§ 77), serving as the unstressed part of a diphthong of which the following vowel is the stressed part. See §§ 146 & N, 201 N3. (*d*) Dialectically j is sounded *g*.

Note 2. In words from the French, j = *ʒ* (but the native *ʃ* is often substituted, see § 129*c* & § 199 1 *d*): Journāl, Jalouſie, *ʒ* or *j* in Jaſmīn.

Note 3. In words from the English, j = English j, that is, *dʒ* (but *ʒ* or *ʃ* is often substituted, § 129*c*): Jockey = (*d*)*ʒŏkai*, Jury = (*d*)*ʒūrī* (cf. § 199, 1*e*), less often Germanized: *jŏkai*, *jūrī*.

K

205. k ('*kā*') is the voiceless back stop, §§ 149, &c., = English k (but see § 165, 2*c*): krank, kalt, Klaſſe, Knie (do not neglect the *k* as in English, see N2).

Remark 1. This sound differs from g in that it is voiceless, § 150, and often aspirated § 149 N; the aspiration may even develop into a fricative, thus making with the preceding stop an affricate, § 82. For ck see § 183.

Remark 2. In Middle and South Germany k is often sounded weak (§ 150 N3) and not distinguished from g, but not initially before a vowel in South Germany.

Note 1. The k before a front vowel is made farther forward in the mouth (the top, or palatal, *c*, §§ 152*b*, 157: Kirche, keck, kick, Kate, cat, &c.) than that before a back vowel (the back *k*, § 152*c*: kalt, Koch, Kuchen, caught, cook, &c.), cf. § 194, 1 N; but, as every speaker involuntarily makes the distinction, it need not be further regarded (§ 24), and so *k* is used for both *k* and *c* in the phonetic transcription.

Note 2. (*a*) The k of initial kn-, though usually pronounced as *k*, has in some parts (for ex., in Saxony) started on the course it has completed in English: that is, *k* > *kŋ* (§ 153, 2) > *tŋ* > nasal *n* > silent. (*b*) As in English, *k* assimilates dialectically to following *l*: Klaſſe, klingen for Klaſſe, klingen, &c. Cf. § 196 R end.

L

206. l ('*ĕl*'), Lärm, Wille, Palme, Gabel, kalt.

In making the English *l* (cf. § 165, 2*a* & *d*) the whole front part of the tongue has a concave form, and thus leaves a large resonance-chamber between the tongue and the roof of the mouth, while the back of the tongue is raised about as much as it is in sounding the vowel *o*, but not quite as much as a German raises it in pronouncing the uvular, or back r. In making the German l, on the contrary, the back of the tongue sinks, while the front is convex and leaves but a very thin space between its surface and that of the roof of the mouth. Furthermore, in making the German l, the lips are usually opened to the very corners of the mouth, which is generally not the case in sounding the English *l* (§ 165, 1). The result is that the German l has a clear, light sound, and the English *l* a dull, heavy sound; standing to one another as *i* to *u*. The difference is most striking after a stressed vowel, and in the final syllable -el (English *-le*), and here one must be very careful in speaking German not to bring in the English *l*, which sounds to a German like his own back r (§ 221, 2). Compare Tempel with 'temple', Säbel with 'sable', &c., and practice on such words as Stempel, Tafel; Quelle, Elle, älter, helfen; alles; Paul, Gaul, Palme, &c.

Note 1. For syllabic *l* see § 187, 2N5; for voiceless *l* § 150 N2*b*.

Note 2. In words from the French, ll after i, and il and ill after another vowel not initial, are pronounced *lj* (latterly also *j*, § 204 N1*c*, to accord with present French usage), and when final this *lj* becomes *lh* according to § 108, 2: Billard = *biljart*, Billet = *biljĕt'*, Postillon = *pos'tiljōn'*, Detail = *detalh'* or *detaj'*, Bouillon = *bul-jŏŋ'*, Feuilleton = *följətŏŋ'* or *föjətŏŋ'*.

M

207. m (*'ĕm'*) is the lip-nasal, = English *m* (but see § 166*e*): Mehl, Da'me, am, kommen, Kampf.

Note. In words from the French, (1) am, an, em, en; (2) ain, ein, im, in; (3) om, on; (4) um, un; when not followed by a vowel, "aspirate *h*," m, or n, are rendered in the South, as in France, by the nasalized vowels: *ã, ẽ, õ, ỹ* (§ 133), just as the native final n is apt to be (§ 208 N 2); in the North and generally in the Midland by (1) *ăŋ*: Avancement *'avăŋ'səmăŋ'*, Penſion *paŋs-jōn'*; but *ăn* in Char'latan (cf. also § 314), and before b or p an m is more commonly pronounced *m*: Champagner *ſampăn'j·r*; and before d or t an n is often pronounced *n*: Guirlande *gĭr-lăn'də*, Tante; (2) *ĕŋ*: Refrain', Train, Baſſin', but *ĕn* in Sar'lekin; (3) *ŏŋ*: Onkel, Cham'pignon; but m before b or p is generally pronounced *m*: L'hombre *lŏm'b·r*; and -on = *ōn*: Bataillon *bătaljōn'*, Eskadrōn', Garniſōn', &c., but Balkon has *ōn* or *ŏŋ* and Napo'leon has *ŏn*; (4) *ăŋ*; but such words are rare; Parfum' has *ĕm* more generally than *ăŋ* and is often written Parfüm. In some older words, the South too has *m* (Champagner), *n* (Guirlande, Tante, -ion), or *ŋ* (Onkel).

Remark. Nasal vowels are not German except dialectically (§ 133), and the substitution, in German, of the nearest native sound is natural and proper, § 129*c*.

For -en = ·*m*, and for -em = ·*m*, ·*n*, ·*ŋ*, see §§ 187, 2 N 5, 167*a*; for voiceless *m*, § 150 N 2*b*.

N

208. n (*'ĕn'*) is the front (or point) nasal, = English *n* (but see §§ 165, 2*d*, 166*c*): nun, nennen, Band, Knochen.

Note 1. Before a lip-consonant n is sometimes sounded *m*: fünf, Zukunft, unverſchämt; cf. the similar assimilation in empfinden < enpfinden < entfinden, § 119. For n = *ŋ* see

§ 209; for -en = -n, -m, or -ŋ, §§ 187, 2 N 5, 167 *a*; for n in French words, § 207 N; for voiceless *n*, § 150 N 2 *b*.

Note 2. (*a*) In many SG and MG dialects, final n has become silent or is represented only by the nasalization of the preceding vowel, § 133. (*b*) In the Midland and the North, final n often disappears before consonants, in the weak forms (§ 114) of ein, mein, &c.

209. n before k and g represent the back nasal ŋ = Eng- ng (*'ĕn'-gē'*) lish ng in 'singer' (but see § 166 *e*) not ng in 'finger' (§§ 169 N 2, 126, 1 end): Singer, Finger, Rang, Diphthong', Ingwer; Bank, senken.

Remark. The nasal after a back vowel is back (ŋ: geſungen), while that after a front vowel is more front or palatal (ṅ: ſingen), just as the g in gut differs from that in Gift (§ 194 N); but this difference will be ignored in the phonetic transcription, § 24 end.

Note 1. (*a*) In some German names ng before back vowels or r = *ŋg*: Engadin, Ingolſtadt, Ingo, Ingraban. So in foreign names like Ungarn, Kongo, Albalonga, Ganges (also *ganjĕs*), &c.; but most foreign names having ng before e are treated as native words and have ŋ: Ungern, Ingermanland, &c. (*b*) In some foreign words ng = *ŋg*: Linguiſt, Angelus, evangeliſch (*ng* or *ŋg*), &c.

Note 2. In composition n does not generally become ŋ before back consonants except in an- and un- and the foreign *con-*, so eingehen with *n* (less frequently ŋ), but angekommen, ungefähr and Kongreß', konkrēt' with *n* or ŋ, still ungern almost always has *ng*. Foreign in- rarely becomes *iŋ* unless the next syllable is stressed: inkorrekt and Inkonſequenz with *in*, but inkognito with *in* or *iŋ*. ŋ often > *m* in Jungfer, altjüngferlich, &c. Assimilation to a following word is not uncommon in some collocations of frequent occurrence: kann man *ka(m)man*, man geht *maŋ gēt*, &c., cf. 'by'm'by' for 'by and by.'

Note 3. In many parts of the North (Hanover, Brunswick, &c.) final ng is pronounced *ŋk*, also in parts of the Midland with a very weak *k*; but the usage of most parts and of the stage is as given above. In some parts of the North (Schleswig-Holstein, Westphalia) -ng = *ŋχ*. In some parts (for example, Westphalia) medial ng is still sounded *ŋg*. Cf. § 126, 1 end.

O

210. o (‘$\bar{o}$’) is the mid-back-round vowel, §§ 134 &c., 145; when long it is narrow, when short it is wide. But at the South it is narrow even when short; for other cases of short narrow o, see § 144 N2*b*.

1) When long, o is like English o in ‘know’: Ōfen, Sohn, Boot, be=ō′bachten, Bō′ā, al′ſō, Back′ō′fen (§ 142).

2) When short, it is similar to the o in ‘forty’ but shorter and more like German long o: Ort, Sonne, offen, Oxygēn′.

Note 1. English ‘know’, ‘though’, &c., really contain a diphthong ending in *u* (§ 49 N); this is most prominent in British English. German ō is so pronounced only dialectically, and the learner should endeavor to pronounce it as a simple vowel, § 166*a*. Moreover, in making German ō, the tongue is higher and its tip is drawn farther back than in making the English sound.

Note 2. Before r a long o is often wider, or opener (§ 135), than before other sounds: Thōr, Ohr.

Note 3. Short o is, perhaps, the most difficult vowel for an English-speaking person to acquire. He must be careful not to substitute for it the o in ‘not’, ‘copper’, &c.; for this sounds to a German like a, § 112. The short o heard in New England in such words as ‘road’, ‘coat’, ‘stone’, &c., is pretty near the German sound; but the learner must as carefully avoid using English ō as English ŏ: to pronounce Poſt “*pōſt*” is as unpardonable as to pronounce Gott like English “got.” For narrow ŏ see § 144 N2*b*; it occurs three times in Zoologie *tso′o-lo-gī′*.

Note 4. For Klōſter, Ōſtern, Ōſterland =rode =wald &c. (no longer Oſt, Oſten, except in parts of the North), Rōſt ‘honey-comb’ (but Röſt ‘rust’, Röſt ‘grate’), Trōſt, Lōtſe, Mōnd, Mōntag, and the names Jōbſt, Jōſt and Thōrn, see § 137 N3; for hōch (but Höchzeit), see §§ 137 N1, 139*a* N2; for Ōbſt, Prōpſt, Vōgt (as a proper name also spelled Voigt), § 139*b*; for Jō′bler, Ō′brigkeit′, O′briſt, Knŏ′blauch′, &c., § 137 R2 (similarly in Knō′dnitz, Kō′blenz the first syllable is open), so Patrō′klus § 91, 3, but Dŏgma; for Bōrsdorfer,

Bōrt (but Bŏrd), § 140*b*. Observe ō in French Fort, Reſſort, &c., § 231 N 3, and in Jewish kōſcher. Under secondary stress observe Kleinōd, Herzōg or ŏ, Biſchŏf or ō (both ō in pl.), Ambŏß pl. -ŏſſe NG, Ambōß pl. -ōße SG. In Würtemberg the preterit of the II. class of strong verbs often has ō: gießen, gōß for gŏß, &c. For Joli *zŏl'ī* see § 138 N 2*c* R*b*; for M & SG Patriŏt', patriŏt'iſch, &c., see § 138 N 2*b*; for ŏb (ōb in parts of the South), vŏn (vōn in parts of the Midland and the South, § 140*c* ft), vŏm, see § 144; for Chŏk, Dŏn, Grŏg, Grŏs, Jŏt, Mŏb, Tŏp, see § 138 N 3; for grŏb, Grŏbheit -ſchmied, but grōber, and for NG Hŏf, Lŏb, &c., see § 138 N 1; for vōr' but vŏr al'lem &c., vŏrbei', vŏrzüg'lich, &c., ſō' but ſŏ grōß', ſŏbald', ſŏdann', &c., and ſchŏn, wŏhl, see § 144 N 1, but some still pronounce even stressed wohl with ŏ, which is also retained in the obscured Wŏlluſt while Wohllaut has ō; for Pōlen but pŏlniſch, mōgen but mŏchte, hören but gehŏrſam, Vŏrteil and NG Vŏrwerk and vŏrwärts (ŏ especially in the military command and in "Marſchall Vorwärts"), see § 139*a* N; for Brŏm-beere, Lŏr-beere (still Lōr- in parts of the North and the South), and names like Kŏn-rad, see § 139*a* N 3. Observe Schŏß 'a shoot', 'a tax', but Schōß 'lap'; Nŏß 'steed' but Nōß 'honey-comb'; Floß, Proſoß, and Schloße usually have ō. See also § 228 & N.

211. **oa** = *ō* in Coaks, *o* or *oă'* in Toaſt, *oā'* in Kloake.

212. **oe** as a spelling for ö maintained itself longest as a capital, see § 22 R; as more classic than ö, it has been affected by some in writing their names, notably by Goethe. In Greek and Latin words, oe is usually two vowels (the diphthongs *oι* and *oe* being printed ö in German): *ō'*e in Poeſie, *oē'* in Poet', Poetik, &c. (as in German ſoe'ben). In Low-German geographical (generally not in personal) names, oe = *ō*: Itzehoe', Koesfeld, Oldesloe', Soeſt. In Dutch names, oe = *ū*: Boerhave, Boers, Roer.

213. (*a*) **oi** and **oy** in names and in a few words from Low German or from foreign languages, is the diphthong *oi*: Boitzenburg, Loiſach, Oybīn'; Boi, Troygewicht; but (*b*) in LG names oi = *ō*: Boic-horſt, Broich, Troisdorf, &c., § 44, 3 N 2 (but the HG interpretation of these as a diph-

thong is now common, p. 108 ft), so also in the name Voigt and the French Comptoir, also written Kontōr′. (*c*) In most words from the French, oi is pronounced *wa*, or rather o̯*a* (§ 146 N), the *a* being long if the diphthong has the stress: Toilette *to̯alĕt′ə*, Memoiren *mĕmo̯ārn′*; oy is more commonly *o̯j* than o̯*aj*: loyal *lojāl′*, Royaliſt. (*d*) oi = two vowels in Rhomboïd′, &c.

om, on, see § 207 N.

214. ou in French words = German u: *ū* in Tour, *ŭ* in Couvert′, Douch′e, cf. § 48, 3.

215. ow in LG names and a few foreign words = *ō*: Virchow, Bowle. For w in Slavic names cf. § 239, 2 R*f*.

Ö

216. ö ('*ō̈*' or 'mutated *ō*', § 120, 3) is the mid-front-round vowel, §§ 134 &c., 145. When long it is narrow, when short it is wider — considerably at the North, much less so at the South. During the formation of the vowel, the tongue is in the position for e, but the tip of it either sinks or is drawn in, and the lips are not only nearly closed, but also somewhat protruded: in this way the front resonance-chambers (that is, the spaces just behind and in front of the front teeth) are enlarged, § 132. Singers sometimes produce this sound in prolonging such a word as 'days' (§ 136, 1); it may also be observed in an indolent and somewhat affected pronunciation of 'say!', and in *kədö* for *kədē*, a call to sheep common in the northern States.

1) It is long in höhlen (distinguished from hehlen by rounding), König, Öfen, Goethe, Erdöl; and

2) Short in Hölle, k̆önnen (distinguished from Helle, kennen by rounding), Götter, &c.

Note 1. ö should not be pronounced as a diphthong = *oe*, nor like English ŭr in 'fur', for ex., 'Gŭrty' for Goethe. It would be better to use *ĕ* instead; for all Germans would understand this, and many use it (§ 136, 2).

Note 2. For Klöſter, röſten Röſte (both often ŏ, especially in the North), tröſten, öſterlich, Öſt(er)reich (rarely ŏ), Öſterberg, &c., (öſtlich is still heard at the North), Pröpſtin, Vögte, and others with ō < ō (observe that ō has generally become ŏ in Oſt, Roſt, &c.) cf. § 137 N 3; böſchen and Böſchung have ŏ or ō § 137 N 1; for höchſt but möchte mögen see § 139*a* & N, similarly Gehöft often has short ö even in the South, § 139 N 1 end; for Gröbs, Lötzen, § 139*b*; for Trö'dler, Vöglein, Mö'dling, see § 137 R 2, for möblie'ren § 144 N 2*b*; for Behörde (also ŏ), NG Börde, Börte, and Börding, Börs, Börſe (also ŏ), Mörſer (also ŏ), the name Wörth (locally ŏ), Donauwörth, and NG names like Fö(h)rde, Eckernförde, Bremervörde, Kalvörde, see § 140*b*; for Biſchöfe, Herzöge, Einöde, &c. see § 210 N 4. Observe Schößling < Schoß 'a shoot', and Schößling < Schoß 'pet', and see § 228 N.

P

217. p (*'pē'*) is the voiceless bilabial stop, §§ 149, 150, 152*a*, = English p (but see § 165, 2*c*): Puder, Suppe, plump.

Note 1. This sound differs from b in that it is voiceless (§ 150) and often aspirated (§ 149, 1 N).

Note 2. In some words from the French final p is silent: Coup *kū*, Corps *kōr*, so too Comptoir = Kontōr'. It is not silent in Pſalm, Pſeudonym, Pſychologie, &c.

For initial ſp, see § 225.

218. pf (*'pē'-ĕf'*) = *p* + *f* (see § 169 N 1): Sumpf, Pfund, Pferd, ſtopfen.

Note. The *p* of pf is often so far assimilated to the *f* that it is, like *f*, made with the upper teeth and lower lip, instead of with both lips, or, at least, both upper lip and teeth touch the lower lip. When initial or after m, pf is frequently sounded *f* in the North and the Midland: Pferd, pflegen, kämpfen, Schimpf.

219. ph (*'pē'-hā'*) occurs in Epheu and in a few foreign words; it = *f*: Telegraph, Pho'tographie', Metaph'er. See § 137 N 1. phth = *ft*: Diphthong, Diphtherī'tis, Naphtha. In Sappho the first p is generally silent.

Q

220. qu (*'kū'-ū'*) = *kv* or *kβ* (with fricative more or less voiceless but weak, § 150 N 2 *c* &c. end, § 239, 2 *c*): Quart, Quelle, bequēm'.

Note. In some French words qu = *k*: Bouquet', Marquī'se, Piqué; but not in quitt, Quittung, &c.

R

221. r (*'ĕr'*): Brōt, Markt, fahren, rōt, Vater. The letter r is pronounced differently in different parts of Germany and among different classes of people; or rather, there are two or three different r's in extensive use in Germany, a front r, a back r, and a glottal r.

1) The Front r (the point-trill, or Zungenſpitzen-r, transcribed *r*) is like the Scotch r, or like r in 'rat' trilled (gerollt). That is, the tip of the tongue is raised and put in rapid vibration. It is used in many parts of Germany, and actors and singers aim to employ it; but it seems to be rapidly losing ground before the back r, § 129 R.

2) The Back r (the uvular-r, or Zäpfchen-r, transcribed *ꞅ*) is the "Northumbrian burr." During its formation, the front of the tongue lies down, while the part farther back assumes the form of a trough, in which the uvula lies and, as the breath strikes it from behind, vibrates up and down

like a little tongue.* But the trough is very generally not well formed, the back of the tongue not curling up enough on the two sides, so that the breath gets around the uvula without putting it into vigorous vibration; then (§ 149, 2 N) the sound produced approaches very closely to that of γ, § 198, 1 (compare Waren and Wagen) and, before voiceless consonants (§ 150 N 2), to that of χ, § 198, 2 (compare Art and Acht).

Remark. A uvular r with falsetto voice (§ 74 *b*) is often made by boys in this country in imitating a crow.

3) The Glottal r (transcribed *ɹ*). A very slow vibration or trembling (see § 73, N) of the vocal chords is sometimes substituted for the trill of the tongue or uvula, or is used in place of voice in connection with the trill; it may even take the place of voice in a vowel adjoining the r. A vigorous glottal r is used in Mecklenburg and Pommerania and is affected in certain circles of society elsewhere; a softer, weaker glottal r is common in Saxony and other parts of the Midland.

Remark 1. A glottal r (often front-modified by the rising of the tip of the tongue) occurs also in our northern States by the side of the ordinary tongue-tip r, and, when made with falsetto voice (§ 74 *b*), has a peculiar grating sound.

Remark 2. The learner should strive to acquire the uvular or the glottal r; unless he intends to go on the stage, where the point trill is aimed at.

Note 1. In words from the French ending in -er and in some ending in -ier, the r is silent, thus Diner' (*-ē'*), Déjeuner': Atelier' (*-jē'*), and so Bankier', Metier', Portier', Rentier', &c., but Barbier' (*-īr'*), Kavalier', Paſſagier, &c. (§ 202).

Note 2. In some districts (notably in Berlin), final r becomes the vowel *ă* or disappears entirely, just as is the case to a large extent in English. Thus Vater becomes *fātă*, Tür *diă*,

* This may easily be seen by the use of a hand-mirror. Compare the sound made in snoring.

nur *nūă*, gar *gā*. This usage seems to be gaining: it is surely less objectionable to a German ear than the harsh glottal r heard in our northern States, R 1.

Note 3. In some parts, r is apt to assimilate to a following point consonant (§§ 152 *b*, 157) and so to disappear: Ga'ten, Ka'toffel, Ma'ſch, &c. Cf. its loss by dissimilation, § 124.

For (r)rh see § 200 *d*.

S

222. ſ, ß (*'ĕs'*) is the point fricative.

(1)

When final (§ 108, 2) or next a voiceless consonant (§ 150 N 2), it is voiceless, as in English 'sin': Glaß, Biß-marck, Dreß-den, iſt, and so even before vowels: bōß'artig, Erbſe *'erpsə*, Büchſe *bŭks'* (distinguish these cases from those in § 223 N 4).

(2)

223. 1) In entirely voiced neighborhood (that is, between vowels or between a vowel and a voiced consonant) medial ſ has become voiced, = *z* (cf. English s in 'risen', 'rosy', &c.), in most of North Germany: reiſen, Gläſer, geweſ(e)ne (91 N 2), böſer, Füllſel, &c. See § 119 & R p. 80.

2) Before a vowel initial ſ has become more or less voiced in parts of North Germany, especially in the North-West, § 130: Sie = *zĭ* or *szĭ*, Sohn, ſehen, &c.; similarly in compounds: Schwiegerſohn, verſehen, but see N 4. In cases like da ſie = *dā'zĭ*, ſ is practically medial and belongs under 1 above.

Note 1. (*a*) In cases of syncope like geweſ(e)ne, in which the full form is still current, ſ = *z* (or z), so too in Baßler < Baſel, and sometimes in Pilßner: but it is usually voiceless in others: Gleißner, Klaußner, &c. and in such formations as Rößlein. (*b*) 's = es becomes *z* in 's iſt, not in 's geht, 's möchte, 's war.

Remark. In nieſen voiceless ſ is common in the North, perhaps in imitation of the sound of sneezing.

Note 2. In certain words from the French, North Germans often retain the French voiceless ſ: frequently in Sergeant, Service, Serviette, Silhouette, Souveran; usually not in Sellerie, Serenade, Sonett, Souper. Sakrament has *z*, but as a French oath it has *s*. Sansſouci, the palace at Potsdam, is pronounced *saŋ′ susĭ′*.

Note 3. In the Midland and the South and in parts of the North, ſ is generally* voiceless in any position (§ 150 N3); and in the North, initial ſ before a vowel often has the first part voiceless and only that near the vowel voiced. It, therefore, seems best to represent the ſ that is always voiceless by *s* in the phonetic transcriptions, and to use *z* rather than *z* for the ſ that is more or less voiced in the North or, even if voiceless, is weak, § 150 Notes.

Note 4. When the ſ follows a voiceless consonant and begins a syllable that sometimes or always has chief or secondary stress, it, too, is generally sounded voiceless, even by those who elsewhere have *z*; but as it is often weak (cf. § 150 N2*c*) like a voiced consonant, it is marked z (not *z*) rather than *s* in the phonetic transcription, N3: enthaltſam, Labſal, bugſieren, hat ſie, ob ſie, er macht ſich's ſauer. But Erbſe, Häckſel, Rätſel, Achſe, &c. have *s*, § 222 end.

Note 5. ſ͡ſ = *s*, z, or *z*, or long *s* in Ausſicht, ausſuchen, Mendelsſohn, &c., §§ 150 N2*c*, 114, *sſ* or long *ſ* in Ausſprache, Ausſtellung, &c., *ſ* in Bimsſtein, and so generally in such genitive compounds as Andachtsſtunde, Rechtsſchluß, &c., ß͡ſ = *s* in Fußſtapfe, and the spelling Fußſtapfe is sanctioned.

Note 6. Final *s* is silent in some French words: Corps *kōr*, Palais *pălā′*, &c.

(3)

224. Initially before another consonant, ſ is always voiceless, but it is not always *s*.

Note. German formerly had *s* initially before various other consonants, as Low German and English have to-day. We have the statements of grammarians of the 16th century

* But z or *z* may occasionally be heard at the South between vowels for either ſ or ß, so reiſen, äußerlich, außerordentlich, &c.

that in High German this *s-* had by that time changed to *ſ*, and that too before p and t as well as before other consonants. Gradually the orthography made the same change: *slīm* 'slime' > Schleim, *smal* 'small' > ſchmal, *snē* 'snow' > Schnee, *swan* > Schwan. But the frequent occurrence of ſp and ſt, medially and finally, and the influence of the many Greek and Latin words beginning with ſp and ſt, succeeded in establishing an inconsistency in the spelling, which, being misunderstood, offers to those of Low-German stock (cf. § 225 N 1) a plausible excuse for adhering to the Low-German pronunciation in these cases.

225. (*a*) ſp- ſt- = *ſp ſt* (with weak *p* and *t*, § 150 N 1*b*): ſpät, Spiel, ſprechen, Stein, ſtill, ſtehen; also in composition: Bei-ſpiel, be-ſprechen, ver-ſtehen, Ge-ſtein (not in the name Gaſ-tein), Holſtein, Raſtatt, Roſtock (also with *s*). So, too, in foreign words: Spaß, ſpeciell, Spediteur, Station; and usually, but not universally, in foreign compounds, if the first part is a familiar one: Per-ſpektive, Re-ſpekt, In-ſtrument, kon-ſtatieren (of course not in Dis-put, Dis-tinktion, &c.); also in familiar proper names: Spanien, Spinoza, Stockholm, Stuart, &c.

Remark. In words recently adopted or preserving a distinctly foreign appearance, the foreign *sp st* is sometimes retained: Spleen, ſtaccato, &c.

Note 1. In Bremen, Hanover, and other North-German districts, initial ſ before t and p is still sounded *s* (§ 224 N), not, however, in the theatres there. When these North Germans undertake to acquire *ſt ſp*, they sometimes misunderstand "initial" to mean only at the very beginning of a word and so sound Spiel with *ſp* but Beiſpiel with *sp*, § 129*b*.

Note 2. In the Midland, r̄ſ(t) is often pronounced *rſ(t)*: erſt, Wurſt, mir's; and in parts of the South, every ſt ſp is sounded *ſt ſp*: Kiſte, Knoſpe, &c.; but the learner will avoid these as carefully as initial *sp st*.

226. (*b*) As Germanic *sk-* had early become ſch = *ſ* (§ 119 end), adopted words beginning with ſk- or ſc- have generally retained the foreign pronunciation: ſkandieren,

Skizze, Skulptur, Sconto; but some familiar ones may, more or less frequently, be heard with *sk*: thus Skandal, less frequently Skat, Sklave, Skrupel, &c.

227. (*c*) Before other consonants, ſ occurs in a few adopted words and = *s*: Sbirre, Scene, Slave, Smaragd, Sphäre, and LG names like Swine, Swinemünde, &c., § 224 N, but observe Schlips or Shlips.

228. ſſ ('*ĕs'-ĕs'*') and ß ('*ĕs'-tsĕt'*', less commonly '*sē*') are always voiceless (but see § 123 N 3 ft), = *s*: daß, gleißen, Waſſer.

Note. ſſ occurs only medially and then only after short vowels (§ 41, 2 *b*), ß occurs medially after long vowels and finally (§ 41, 2 *b*, 3 *b*).; consequently, as it is not possible to tell the quantity of a vowel before final ß, one must look to a medial form. Thus Fuß and Schoß 'lap' have long vowels, inasmuch as the genitives Fußes and Schoßes have ß; and ſchoß, muß, Haß häßlich haßte have short vowels, as seen from ſchoſſen, müſſen, Haſſes and haſſen. It has been suggested that this difficulty be obviated by writing ſs finally after short vowels, and the Austrian speller requires ſs, § 41, 3 *b*.

229. ſch ('*ĕs'-tse-hā'*', § 343, less commonly '*ſē*') is a voiceless fricative practically identical with English sh; it is printed *ſ* in phonetic transcription. Schiff, Aſche, Fiſch, Schnee, ſchmal, ſchlagen.

Note. The tongue is so placed as to direct the breath against the teeth and lips in a somewhat different way from what it does in the case of *s*; moreover, the point of the tongue is retracted, so that there is a considerable resonance-chamber between it and the teeth; the quality of the sounds is thus materially different, §§ 75–6. In making this sound, Germans usually protrude the lips more than English-speaking people do.

Remark 1. Notice that ßch = *sh* and not *ſ*: Klöß-chen < Klöß and -chen; still bißchen is not infrequently sounded *bifn*, but this is by many regarded as vulgar.

Remark 2. In Greek words ſch = *ſ*: Aſchylus; but in words from the Italian it = *sk*: Scherzo.

230. ſh = *ſ* occurs only in words from the English and those supposed to be from the English: Faſhion, Shawl *ſāl*, Sherry, S(c)hlips 'neck-tie.'

ß, see ſſ, § 228.

T

231. t (*'tē'*) and th (*'tē'-hā'*, § 35 & N) represent the voiceless point stop, = English t (but see § 165, 2*c*): hatte, tōt, Thomas, Thee, That, The-a'ter, Iſthmus, Goethe, Lüther.

Note 1. This sound differs from d in that it is voiceless (§ 150) and often aspirated (§ 149, 1 N).

Note 2. In the North and the Midland, t is, in colloquial speech, generally silent after the fricatives of iſt and nicht: Das is' nich' mei(n) Vater (§ 150 N 1*b*; South Germans are apt to say ni't or ne't), also (§ 121) in du gil(t)ſt, ſchil(t)ſt, häl(t)ſt, fich(t)ſt, haſ(t) du, hätt(e)ſ(t) du, jetz(t), heu(t)zutage, ach(t)zehn &c., Mol(t)ke, cf. § 114 and § 242, N 2*d*. For ſt, see § 225.

Note 3. (*a*) In some words from the French (or supposed to be from the French) t is silent: Paletot *păl'etō*, Budget *büdʒē'* (but also, as from the English, *bud'ʒet*), Arrangement *'araŋ'ʒəmaŋ'*, Etabliſſement', &c.; (*b*) but we have *-nt* in Dirigent', Inſtrument', intelligent', &c., these being from the Latin.

232. ti before a vowel, in words from the Latin, usually = *tsj* (§ 201 N 3): Lektiōn', Nationn', martiāl', Patient', Ak'tie, Exerci'tium, Helve'tien, Böo'tien. Not in French words with ie = *ī*: Ariſtokratie', Partie', &c.

tz (*'tē'-tsĕt'*) see z.

U

233. u (*'ū'*) is the high-back-round vowel, §§ 134 &c., 145. German u is higher than the corresponding English sound, and the front part of the tongue is drawn farther back; moreover, the lips are more protruded, § 165, 1.

1) When long, it is like English oo in 'boot': Schule, gūt, Blume, Huhn, U'hu' (both u's), Feld'blu'me.

2) When short, it is nearly the same as English *oo* in 'foot': Mutter, Gluck, dumm, Humboldt, Bildung, Mĕtrum, Du=ell'.

Note 1. In the North, ŭ is wider than ū and may even approach ŏ in sound; in the South, it approaches ū in narrowness.

Note 2. A narrow short u (transcribed u not *u*, § 135 end) occurs in unstressed open syllables in adopted words, § 144 N 2*b*: Statue, Kommuniſt, &c.; some, however, use a wide vowel instead, especially next a stressed syllable.

Note 3. Be careful not to pronounce German ŭ like English u in 'dust'. Be careful also never to pronounce German u before r as in English 'burr': so Burſche has Bu= as in English 'bull', § 167*b*. For und = *ən(t)* or *·n(t)*, see § 113 end; for gu = *g*, see § 199, 4.

Note 4. Be careful not to pronounce German ū like English u in 'use', 'cube', etc.; for this begins with a *j*-sound (as though the words were written 'youse' &c.), which the German ū does not have, § 166. For dialectic *uǫ* cf. § 236.

Note 5. For words having *ūts* and *ūtſ*, and for pūſten, Hūſten, Schūſter, but now generally Wŭſt, wŭchs, Wŭchs, see § 137 N 3; for Brūch 'a sort of breeches', also 'bog' (but Brŭch 'breach', Steinbrŭch 'quarry'), Būch, Būche, Flūch, Kūchen, ſūchen, Trŭchſeß, Tūch, Wŭcher, Babūſche, Lūſche (NEG), rūſcheln, wūſch (both often ŭ in the North), see § 137 N 1, in the Midland Buch, Tuch, Fuß, and in the SW Buch, Tuch, Fluch often have ŭ; for Gebūrt, rarely Fŭrt, see § 140*b*; un= has ŭ, except in parts of the South and the Midland, but ur= has ū, § 140 & ft, except in Urteil, Urtel, § 139*a* N. Under secondary stress, ū occurs in Armūt, Wild=ſchūr, and the names Arthŭr, Gudrūn, Ortrūn, &c., also (except at the South) in =tūm, and by analogy Wittūm, but not in Latin =um, =us, &c.; for Pū'blikum &c., see § 91, 3. The u is short in the name Lŭther, also in Schŭ'biak; for the adopted words Klŭb, plŭs, Rŭm, kapŭt(t), see § 138 N 3; for North-German Zŭg, &c., see § 138 N 1; for zŭ, zŭm, zŭr, see § 144 & N 1, so genug generally has ŭ when unstressed, and in some parts even when stressed, § 104, 2; for Mūß, mŭß (also ū in the South), see § 228 N; for Trŭthahn, Būgſpriet, and names like Brŭnhild, Lŭdwig, Ŭlrich, see § 139*a* N 3; for SG Minŭ'te, see § 138 N 2*b*; dūzen and dūſ(e)lig often have ŭ, especially in the North. For u in qu cf. § 220.

234. ue as a spelling for ü maintained itself longest as a capital, see § 22 R. ue = u$\breve{e}$ in Duell, Kongruenz, ufuell', zuerſt; u$\breve{e}$ in Sa'muel; $\bar{u}$'$\breve{e}$ in Suez; $\bar{u}$ in the names Kotzebue, Uechtland. For gue gui, see § 199, 4.

235. ui (a diphthong = *u* + *i*, with but little more stress on *u* than on *i*) occurs only in the exclamations hui and pfui.

Note. (*a*) In some Low-German names like Duisburg and Zuiſt, ui = $\bar{u}$, p. 109 ft; uie = $\bar{u}$ in Parapluie'; (*b*) in Dutch names, ui or uy = $o\underset{\sim}{i}$: Zuiderſee, Sluys. (*c*) Elsewhere ui = two vowels: Rŭī'ne, Lŭī'ſenthal, Lū'itpold, &c.; or, in rapid or dialectic speech, a diphthong: $\underset{\sim}{u\bar{\imath}}$ or $\bar{u}\underset{\sim}{\check{\imath}}$.

236. uo (a diphthong = $\bar{u}\underset{\frown}{o}$ or $\bar{u}\underset{\frown}{\ddot{o}}$) has generally become $\bar{u}$ (Buch, Schuh, &c., § 22) but still occurs in the South, and in certain Southern names (like Kuoni, Ruodi) is often rendered $\bar{u}$'o or u$\ddot{o}$ in other parts of Germany, p. 108 ft.

ü

237. ü ('$\ddot{\imath}$' or 'mutated $\bar{u}$', § 120) is the high-front-round vowel (§§ 134 &c., 145). When long it is narrow, when short wide (§ 135), considerably at the North, much less at the South. During the formation of the vowel, the tongue is in the position for i, but the tip of it either sinks or is drawn in, and the lips are not only nearly closed but also somewhat protruded: in this way the front resonance-chambers (that is, the spaces just behind and in front of the front teeth) are enlarged, § 132. Singers sometimes produce this sound in prolonging such a word as 'ease' (§ 136, 1); it may also be heard in *füp*, a call to sheep, § 136, 1, and in an affected pronunciation of "oh, dear!"

1) It is long in Mühle, für (distinguished from vier by rounding), Papier'müh'le (§ 142), Hühner, Bücher, &c.

2) It is short in Müller, Tücken (distinguished from ticken by rounding), hündiſch, the name Blücher, &c.

Note 1. Never pronounce ü like English ū or like *u* + *e*. It would be better to use ĭ instead; for all Germans would understand this, and many use it (§ 136, 2).

Note 2. For düſter (also ŭ in the South and the west Midland), wüſt, Wüſte, hüſteln, Püſter, see § 137 N 3 and § 233 N 5, but Rüſter now has ŭ as often as ǖ, and in Rüſter, =wüchſig, wüchſe, wüſche, ǖ has become quite rare, § 141; French Rūche, also written Rüſche, 'ruche' (but Rŭſche pl. of Ruſch 'rush') and Bücher, Büchlein, Flüche, and others having ǖ < ū, § 233 N 5 (but notice gebŭrtig < Gebūrt); for ǖ'brig, ǖ'bler, Lǖ'gner, Bǖ'dner, Flüglein, &c. see § 137 R 2, similarly in Rübſen, Rübſamen, the ü is usually long. Long ü is heard in the names Ülzen and Üchtritz. In Kajüte, also written Kajütte, the ü is often short. In the South the ü of =tümer =tümlich is generally shortened, in the North that of müßig. For für' und für' but für Geld', see § 144 N 1.

V

238. v (*'fau'*).

1) Voiceless, = *f*. In (*a*) German words and (*b*) words thoroughly Germanized, and when (*c*) final. So Vater, von, viel, voll, Frevel; Pulver, Veilchen, Veit, Vers, Vogt, brav(er), Nerv(en), Levkoje; Motīv', Genitīv', &c. Also (*d*) some names (mostly Low German): Bovenden, Bremer= Wilhelms=haven, Bremervör'de, Hanno'ver, Havel, Verden, Voß, Viſcher, Virchow, Varnhagen, Voigtland.

2) Voiced, = *v* or *β*. (*a*) In foreign words still felt to be such (Univerſität', nervös', Va'ſe, Adverb', ovāl', Novel'le, Vene'dig, Ve'nus, and so in the Latinized Old-German Vandalen). North Germans render v (except when final) by the dentilabial w (*v*, § 239, 1*b*), Middle and South Germans by the bilabial w (*β*, § 239, 1*a*), but the latter are inclined to give v the sound of *f* in more words than the North Germans are (thus in Sklave, Vesper, Vī'olī'ne, Venus, &c.). (*b*) In

many Low-German names, medial v is voiced: Alvensleben, Dove, Garve, Jever, Kleve, Ravensberg, Sievers, Struve, Trave, Zeven.

W

239. w ('*vē*'): wer, ſchwer, zwei, Wrack.

1) There are two ways of pronouncing w, or rather there are two w's. (*a*) The bilabial w is formed with the two lips, as in the act of blowing. After voiceless consonants it is more or less voiceless (§§ 119, 150 N 2 *b*) and is transcribed β (§ 239, 2 *c*). The sound is enough like English w to be generally taken for it by English-speaking people, but in its production the back of the tongue is not raised to the *u*-position nor is there any tenseness of the inside of the cheeks or rounding of the lips as is the case when English w is sounded. A real (English) *w*, or *u̯*, may, however, be heard in the South-West. (*b*) The dentilabial w (*v̪*) is formed with the upper teeth and the lower lip, like English v, but it is weaker than our v, being made with less friction.

2) (*a*) In the Midland and parts of the South, the bilabial w is used in all situations, and is generally voiceless though weak, § 150 N 3. (*b*) In the North and generally on the stage, the dentilabial w is usually employed (Waſſer, Löwe, Al'win'); but after an *s*-sound (Schweſter, zwei) the bilabial w is very common, and in this position is more or less voiceless (§ 150 N 2 *b*). (*c*) The u after q (quer, Quelle) is, in the same way, sounded either as β or as v.

In the phonetic transcriptions, w is generally transcribed *v̪*, but ſchw, zw, and qu are transcribed *ſβ*, *tsβ*, *kβ*; *ɸ* is the sign for completely voiceless β, but will not be needed.

Remarks. (*a*) In the few words (from Low German and English) that begin with wr (Wrack, wrangeln, &c.), the w is more or less voiceless, like a weak *f*; it is transcribed f not *f*.

(*b*) w is silent in Shawl and after o, §§ 175, 215. (*c*) wh = w in Whist. (*d*) Dialectically w in wir became (first only *after* the verb) *m* or *b*: *m·r* (or *b·r*) *βoln* = wir wollen. (*e*) w = *p* in Calw, a South-German town. (*f*) When final or next a voiceless consonant in Slavic names w = *f*: Turgenjew Turgeneff, Paderewski.

X

240. x (*'iks'*) = English x in 'ox', that is, *ks* (§ 137 N 1): Hexe, Max, Axt, Exempel (not *egz-*), Xenophon, Xerxes (not *z*).

Note 1. Most pure German words have chs (pronounced *ks*) where the English correspondent would lead one to expect x, cf. §§ 39, 182.

Note 2. (*a*) x is silent in some French words, so the plural Bureaux *bürō'*, but Bureaus *bürōs'* is more common. (*b*) In Mexico and other Spanish words one often hears *h* for x. Don Quixote is usually pronounced *dŏn'ki-hŏt*, in imitation of French pronunciation.

Y

241. y (*'ŭpsī'lŏn'*, now generally *'ŭp'sĭlŏn'*): Syntax, Asyl. The letter y occurs in proper names and in some words from the Greek and other foreign languages. By the people generally it is pronounced like German i, and is usually so taught in the schools; but the study of Greek has caused a revival of the original *ü*-sound in words that plainly show their Greek origin, particularly if the y be long. Thus *ȳ* is considered "elegant" in Ly'rik, My'the, anonym', Hy'dra, § 91, 3, *ȳ̆* (less commonly *ŭ̄*) in Proselyt' (§ 138 N 2*b*), Psyche, and *ĭ̄* in Myrte, Rhythmus (§ 91, 3), Cyklus (exception to § 91, 3), Symbōl', &c., and even in lynchen (< English 'lynch')! On the other hand, the natural pronunciation has established itself even in the spelling in Gips, Silbe, Stil

(< Latin *stilus*, but formerly written Styl), Zimbel, and *i* is usually heard in common words: Ägypten, especially in unstressed syllables: Hyazin'the, Hypothek', Syſtēm', Tyrann', &c. And in most proper names (Hyrtl, Kȳburg, Schwȳz, Sȳke, Wȳk, &c.) and when final in foreign words like Jurȳ, Ponȳ, English names like Willȳ, Harrȳ, and Polish names in -kȳ, the ȳ = i.

Remarks. (*a*) In some words from foreign languages ȳ = *j*: Yankee *jĕŋ'ki*, Yard, Yucatan. See also §§ 213*c* end, 174, 191. (*b*) In some Dutch names ȳ (or ij, § 20) = *aį* (as in English, § 166*a* R): Ȳ, Ypern or Ijpern, Ryſſel, Ryswyk or Rijswijk; but Nȳmwegen.

3

242. ʒ (*'tsĕt'*) and ʒ (*'tē'-tsĕt'*) = *ts* in English 'fits' (§ 169 N 1) or *'t's I* = 'It is I.' So zu, kurz, zehn, Offizier'*, Hoſpīz'.

Note 1. ʒ is used only (except in some names: Bautzen, Boitzenburg, Glātz, Grātz, Lötzen, Schwētz) directly after a short vowel: trŏʒ, Spitze, Kătze; but ʒ after a consonant or a long vowel: Mieze, Novi'ze; Sālz, Wŭrzel.

Note 2. (*a*) The student must learn to pronounce distinctly *ts* and not be satisfied with *dz* or *z*. (*b*) Remember, however, that ß is only a way of writing *s* (§ 41, 2*b*, 3*b*) and has no *t*-sound. (*c*) Initially in Dutch and LG (Zuiderſee, Zeven) and savage names with Dutch or English spelling (Zambeſi, Zanzibar), and in a few other foreign words (Gaze, Bazar, Hazard), ʒ = *z*; but Zulu usually has ʒ = *ts*, and Bazar is also pronounced *bătsār'*. (*d*) In Bronze, ʒ = *s*; occasionally also often n, l, in ganz, Schmalz, &c., §§ 121 and 122 end. For the occasional loss of *t* in ächzt *'eh(t)st*, &c., cf. § 114. (*e*) ʒʒ, = ʒ, is retained in some words from the Italian, etc.: Grandezza, Skizze, § 48, 11 end.

---

* The old spelling was Officier (§ 48, 11), and one still hears the pronunciation, *'ŏfisīr'*, § 179*b*.

SPECIMEN WITH PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTIONS.

243. The following selection from Goethe's *Faust* is given (1) in phonetic transcription representing the careful enunciation of the stage, (2) in phonetic transcription showing the colloquial pronunciation of a North or Middle German who does not speak broad dialect, (3) in the ordinary spelling. (*a*) Besides the points mentioned in § 160, 1–4, it will be observed that in the studied pronunciation represented in (1), unstressed syllables are more distinctly pronounced than in ordinary speech (that is, en, el, &c., are sounded *ən*, *əl*, &c., rather than *·n*, *·l*, § 187, 2 N 5; und does not degenerate into *·n(t)*; vowels tend to lengthen in open syllables, § 144 N 2, 3, and in the pronouns mir, ihn, &c., § 144 N 1; and the glottal stop is more regularly retained, § 154, 2). In order to indicate that a short close vowel may be lengthened, the usual Roman type is used (§ 135 end) but the mark ˘ is placed over it. (*b*) In both (1) and (2), vowels not marked long are short. The unvoicing of sonorous consonants next voiceless consonants (§ 150 N) has been ignored. (*c*) While some variants have been given in (2), it did not seem advisable to notice all, even all important ones. Thus, only the uvular ʀ has been given; ʍ is represented by *ᵛ* not by *β* (§ 239, 2), but *β* has been printed in ʒʍ=, ʃchʍ=, qu= (§ 239, 2 end); ʃ before vowels has been printed z (not *z*) throughout, to accord with the usage of the Midland and the South, the North-German practice being represented in (1), § 223 N 3. Short narrow vowels have been printed (u, o, i, &c.) wherever they may be heard, although some pronounce them wide (*u*, *o*, *i*), § 144 N 2 *b*. Further transcriptions, of a more conservative type, will be found in Vietor's books, p. 107 ff.

(1)

hābə nūn, 'aχ! fi̯'lozofi̯',
ju̯'ristəra i̯' 'unt mĕ'di̯tsīn',
'unt la i̯dər 'au̯χ tē'ologī'!
durɦ'au̯s' ʃtu̯dīrt', mit ha i̯səm bəmū̆n.
dā ʃtē 'iɦ nūn, 'iɦ 'armər tōr!
'unt bin zō klūk 'als vī tsu̯fōr';
ha i̯sə mă gis'ter, ha i̯sə dok'tor gār,
'unt tsīə ʃōn 'an dĭ tsēən jār,
herau̯f', hera i̯', 'unt kvēr, 'unt krum
ma i̯nə ʃū̆lər 'an der nāzə herum' —
'unt zēə, das vĭr niɦts visən könən!
das vil mĭr ʃīr das herts ferbren'ən.
tsvār bin 'iɦ gəʃa i̯tər 'als 'alə dĭ lafən,
dokto'rən, mă gis'tər, ʃra i̯ber, 'unt pfafən;
miɦ plāgən ka i̯nə skrūpəl, noχ tsva i̯fəl,
fürɦtə miɦ vēdər fōr hölə, noχ to i̯fəl —
dā'fü̆r' 'ist mir 'au̯χ 'alə fro i̯t 'entris'ən,
bildə mīr niɦt 'a i̯n, vas reɦts tsu̯ visən,
bildə mīr niɦt 'a i̯n, 'iɦ köntə vas lērən,
dĭ menʃən tsu̯ besərn 'unt tsu̯ bəkērən.
'au̯χ hāp 'iɦ vēdər gūt noχ gelt,
noχ 'ēr 'unt her'liɦka i̯t' der velt;
'es möɦtə ka i̯n hunt zō le ŋər lēbən!
drum hāp iɦ miɦ der mă gī' 'ergē'bən,
'op mīr durɦ ga i̯stəs kraft 'unt munt
niɦt manɦ gəha i̯m'nis vürdə kunt,
das 'iɦ niɦt mēr, mit zau̯rəm ʃva i̯s,
tsu̯ zāgən brau̯χə, vas 'iɦ niɦt va i̯s,
das 'iɦ 'erken'ə, vas dĭ velt
'im 'inərstən tsu̯zam'ən helt,
ʃau̯ 'alə vir'kənskraft' 'unt zāmən,
'unt tu niɦt mēr 'in vortən krāmən.

(2)

hābə [or *hă̆p*] *nŭ̆n*, *'aχ! fi'lozofī'*,
ju'zist·zai̯' un(t) me'ditsīn'*,
un(t) lai̯d·z 'au̯χ tē'ologī'* [or *j*] *!*
duzhau̯s' ʃtudīzt', *mit hai̯s·m* [or *·n*] *bəmū̆n.*
dā ʃtē ih nūn, *'ih 'azm·z tōz!*
un(t) bin* zo *klūχ*, *(')als* vī *tsufōz*,
hai̯s(ə) magis't·z [or *j*], *hai̯sə dok'toz* [or *t·z*] *gāz*,
un† tsī̯(ə) ʃon (')an di tsë(·)*n jāz*,
həzau̯f, *həzap un(t)* kβërz*, *un(t)* kzum*,
mai̯nə fū̆l·z (')an d·z nāzə həzum —
*un(t)** zë(ə), *das* viz *nihts* vis·n *kön·n!*
das vil *miz ʃīz das hezts f·zbzen·n.*
tsβāz bin ih gəʃai̯t·z (')als 'al(ə) di laf·n [or *·m*],
doktō̆'zn, *magis't·z* [or *j*], *ʃzai̯b·z*, *un(t)* (p)faf·n* [or *·m*];
mih plāγ·n [or *·η*] *kai̯nə skzūp·l*, *noχ tsβai̯f·l*,
füzht(ə) mih vēd·z foz höl̥ə noχ toi̯f·l —
dā'fü̆z' (')*is(t) miz 'au̯χ 'alə fzoi̯t 'entzis·n* [or (')*·nt-*],
bildə [or *bilt*] *miz nih(t) 'ai̯n vas zelts tsu vis·n*,
bildə [or *bilt*] *miz nih(t) 'ai̯n (')ih köntə vas lë·zn*,
di menʃ·n tsu bes·zn un† tsu bəkë·zn.
'au̯χ hā'bih vēd·z gūt noχ gelt,
noχ 'ëz unt hez'lihkai̯t' d·z velt;*
(ə)s möht(ə) kai̯n hunt zo *leŋ·z lēb·n* [or *-(b·)m*] *!*
dzum hā'bih mih d·z magī' [or *j*] *'ezgë'b·n* [or (')*·zgë(b·)m*],
'op mīz durh gai̯stəs kzaft un(t) munt*
nih(t) manh gəhai̯m'nis vüzdə *kunt*,
das ih nih(t) mëz, *mit zau̯·zm* [*or n*] *ʃβai̯s*,
tsu zāγ·n [or *·η*] *bzau̯χ(ə)*, *vas ih nih(t)* va*i̯s*,
das ih ·zkenə, *vas di velt*,
im 'in·zst·n tsuzam·n [or *m·m*] *helt*,
ʃau 'alə viz'lk·nskzaft' un(t) zām·n* [or *m·m*],
un† tū nih(t) mëz in vozt·n kzām·n [or *m·m*].

---

* or *·n(t)*. † or *·n*.

(3)

Habe nun, ach! Philosophie,
Juristerei und Medizin,
Und leider auch Theologie!
Durchaus studiert, mit heißem Bemüh'n.
Da steh' ich nun, ich armer Thor!
Und bin so klug als wie zuvor;
Heiße Magister, heiße Doktor gar,
Und ziehe schon an die zehen Jahr,
Herauf, herab und quer und krumm,
Meine Schüler an der Nase herum —
Und sehe, daß wir nichts wissen können!
Das will mir schier das Herz verbrennen.
Zwar bin ich gescheiter als alle die Laffen,
Doktoren, Magister, Schreiber und Pfaffen;
Mich plagen keine Skrupel noch Zweifel,
Fürchte mich weder vor Hölle noch Teufel —
Dafür ist mir auch alle Freud' entrissen,
Bilde mir nicht ein, was Rechts zu wissen,
Bilde mir nicht ein, ich könnte was lehren,
Die Menschen zu bessern und zu bekehren.
Auch hab' ich weder Gut noch Geld,
Noch Ehr' und Herrlichkeit der Welt;
Es möchte kein Hund so länger leben!
Drum hab' ich mich der Magie ergeben,
Ob mir durch Geistes Kraft und Mund
Nicht manch Geheimnis würde kund,
Daß ich nicht mehr, mit saurem Schweiß,
Zu sagen brauche, was ich nicht weiß,
Daß ich erkenne, was die Welt
Im Innersten zusammenhält,
Schau' alle Wirkenskraft und Samen,
Und thu' nicht mehr in Worten kramen.

Book iij

ACCENT

Chapter j

THE NATURE OF ACCENT

244. Mental and emotional states have corresponding physical states, and these to some extent affect speech. Excitement is accompanied by a tense condition of the muscles; and increased tension of the vocal chords results in a rise in pitch, § 74 *b*. That idea that most keenly busies the mind is expressed with most vigor, or stress of voice, § 267. Stress and pitch, being thus the natural accompaniments of mental and emotional activity, become recognized as their symbols and are more or less commonly used as means of accentuation.

245. Accent may, therefore, consist in stress of voice or in elevation of pitch. We may speak of stress of voice as "accent", but it is better to designate it by the more specific term "stress." Stress and pitch may continue side by side, one the symbol of intellectual, the other of emotional activity, and this is in general true of Germanic languages. As, however, a change in stress is apt to be accompanied

---

Behaghel: *Geschichte der deutschen Sprache*, in Paul's Grundriss I., 1890. Brandt: *German Grammar*, 4th ed., 1888. Huss: *Lehre vom Accent der deutschen Sprache*, 1877. Kluge: *Vorgeschichte der altgerm. Dialekte*, in Paul's Grundriss I., 1889. Minor: *Neuhochdeutsche Metrik*, 1893. Paul: *Principien der Sprachgeschichte*, 2d ed., 1886; *Deutsche Metrik*, in his Grundriss II., 1893. Reichel: *Von der deutschen Betonung*, 1888. Sievers: *Phonetik*, 4th ed., 1893; *Phonetik*, in Paul's Grundriss I., 1889. Storm: *Englische Philologie* I. (1), 1892. Vietor: *German Pronunciation*, 2d ed., 1890; *Phonetik*, 2d ed., 1894. Vietor and Valette: *De Uitspraak van het Hoogduitsch*, 1889. Wilmanns: *Deutsche Grammatik* I., 1893.

by a change in pitch (§§ 258 end, 261 N 1), stress may be replaced by pitch, especially when the number of syllables is reduced; or a new pitch-accent may develope two or three syllables distant from the stress-accent. When a certain pitch gets attached in this way to a word or to a syllable of a word, it is called fixed pitch (§ 247), in distinction from free pitch (§ 248).

Note 1. Stress and pitch are the two most natural means of accentuation, stress being the cruder of the two. More artful means are: unusual slowness of utterance, unexpected pauses, and the substitution of whisper (§§ 96, 132 N_2) for voice. The first two are very effective unless overdone; the last is suitable to few occasions and is apt to be resented by listeners as being too artificial.

Note 2. Stress forms the basis of rhythm; pitch, that of melody.

Chapter ij

PITCH

CHARACTER OF SPEECH-PITCH

246. Pitch in speech differs from that in song. In song, a note is held more or less, and the leap, or transition from one note to another, is usually so rapid that the glide is not perceived. In speech, the voice rarely dwells on a note, but is almost constantly passing by gradual glides from one note to another; only occasionally is there a sudden leap. Speech-tones, tôo, are not absolutely pure, and so have somewhat the character of noise. Moreover, in speech, modulation of the voice is subordinate to articulation, forming only a sort of undercurrent.

FIXED PITCH

247. Fixed pitch-accent (§ 245 end) has developed more or less in most of the Scandinavian languages, also in Lithuanian and in Chinese. In German and English there are only traces of it in certain exclamations; for example, unstressed jă with nearly level intonation = "to be sure"; stressed jă, with final glottal stop (§ 154, 2) and rising intonation, expresses something like "Yes, but what's to be done about it?", § 251 *f*; jā with nearly level pitch expresses calm acquiescence, § 257 *d*; jā with falling intonation expresses acquiescence and a desire that no more be said on the subject, § 257 *c*; jā, with compound falling and rising intonation, expresses acquiescence with certain restrictions, § 255 *d*; etc.

FREE PITCH

248. 1) In most languages pitch is still free (§ 245 end) and expresses emotions and attitudes of mind rather than ideas. It is much harder to observe than stress, and has not yet received satisfactory study. Intonation is, however, a pretty true image of emotional and intellectual attitudes, and has not been much influenced by analogy or crystalized into set schemes, as sentence-stress has, § 279 &c. Changes in pitch are easily and frequently confounded with changes in stress.

2) To a very large extent intonation is quite unconsciously performed, and we rarely observe it in ourselves or in those that speak as we do. But an unusual modulation is at once noticed, and its musical quality detected; we say such people sing when they speak. The truth is, we all "sing", but in different melodies, and the familiar one is not heard. Some languages are more musical than others: the tones are purer, the notes are held somewhat, and the glides from one to another are more frequent and rapid. French and the Romance languages generally are very musical, English much less so, German intermediate. The average key is somewhat higher in German than in English, as the French is higher than the German. But these statements are general only. In many parts of Germany the speech is less melodious than, for example, in our Southern States and along our sea-coast. Climate has much to do with the matter: a cold climate and life indoors affect unfavorably the vocal chords (§ 221, 3 R 1) and the soft palate (§ 133), and also reduce spontaneity of spirit, § 104, 3. Age and sex also exert their influence: the speech of children is more melodious than that of older people, that of women usually more so than that of men, cf. § 74 b. There is also great diversity in families and among individuals.

CHIEF KEYS

249. Excitement, whether pleasant or unpleasant, induces tension and so a higher key. Sufficient interest in a subject to induce one to ask questions may suffice to raise the pitch throughout. In some English dialects it starts very high, but falls rapidly (§ 251 *c* N); in most languages, however, it rises distinctly on the last word or two (§ 251 *c*). Ordinary activity is reflected in a middle key. Resignation to disappointment or grief induces relaxation, and so a lower key. Moreover, fear, as also regard for a solemn place or occasion, or for the feelings of others, leads to a lowering of the natural pitch. There is also a half-apologetic lowering of the key on intruding a parenthetic clause.

CHIEF FORMS OF INTONATION

250. As pitch reflects moods rather than thoughts, it is, of course, capable of thousands of modifications; still, certain forms have become associated with certain frequently recurring attitudes of mind or feeling, and thus get something of a grammatical value. In the application of these forms most languages agree. The chief forms of intonation are: —

Level	(rarely really level, § 253)	—
Rising	slowly	⟋
	quickly	⌜
Falling	slowly	⟍
	quickly	⌞

Rising Intonation

251. A rising intonation (⟋ or ⌜, cf. § 250) is, in general, associated with incompleteness and hence with expectancy.

a) At a pause that interrupts what belongs intimately together: Wie das kám, laſſen wir ſie ſelbſt erzählen. Sie that és, weil Sie nicht anders konnte. Not so before a denn-clause, which is really an afterthought. Sie that ès; denn ſie konnte nicht anders. Cf. § 252 *a* N 1.

b) In an expression of surprise, for example, an exclamation at something very pleasant or very alarming: Ách! The word after an exclamation often has falling intonation, §§ 254, 256 *b*, *c*, 305 N 2, end. For Âch! cf. § 256 *b*.

c) In questions of fact: Aber kannte er die innerlichen Gründe? Similarly in statements meant as questions: Du fürchteſt dich? cf. *e* below. But when repeated, being equivalent to the statement: "What I asked was," etc., the sentence closes with falling inflection (cf. §§ 303, 304). At first: Hat er Géld? Repeated: Hat er Gèld? Cf. *d* below. For other questions see §§ 252 *d*, 256 *d*, *e*, 252 *b*.

> Note. In some English and Irish counties a question begins with a high pitch, which falls rapidly until the end of the question is reached (§ 249); this intonation must not be introduced into German. See also § 256 *e* N.

d) In vocatives that anticipate an answer or, at least, attention: Mútter! But when repeated, with the force of "I was calling you," the falling intonation is used: Mùtter! Cf. § 252 *a* & *b*; also §§ 303, 304.

e) In statements meant to test others or to challenge a reply: Er iſt doch ein guter Meńſch. Cf. § 255 *b* & § 251 *c*.

f) In concessive statements, with an objection implied: Er war (zwar) ein netter Meńſch (or Meňſch, § 254). Ich ſagte nichts. Similarly jă with ⌐, § 247.

g) In offers implying a condition: Ich gebe dir meine Tóchter. But here ⌣ is more common, § 255 *c*.

h) On reluctant closing of a conversation, or on taking leave, half challenging the listener to say more or not accept the concession or the "good-bye": Nun, adiéu!

Falling Intonation

252. A falling intonation (\ ⌊, cf. § 250) is the natural accompaniment of language that expresses completeness and hence does not anticipate an addition or a reply.

a) In statements: Er wollte fort.

Note 1. Falling intonation may appear at a pause in a sentence if it is desired to express there a real or imaginary completeness or a distinction from what follows, or if what follows is to be regarded as an afterthought (cf. § 251 *a*, end): Nun ja, das gebe ich zu. Darum laß mich fort, noch iſt es Zeit. So in the case of an added appositive. For rising intonation at a pause, see § 251 *a*.

Note 2. Falling intonation is often used at the ends of members of a series, if it is desired to give the impression that they were not all thought of in the first framing of the sentence; for ex., when the case is really strong enough without their addition or when the listener is to think the sentence ended and be surprised to hear more: Er war furchtbar böſe, er ſchwur, er ſtampfte mit den Füßen, er ſchlug ſogar nach mir.

Note 3. Falling intonation may be used at the ends of members of a series of pairs, if this intonation aids in binding together the members of the pairs; each falling intonation then corresponds to a rising intonation on the first member of the pair: Die Bücher gebe ich meiner Mutter, die Teller der Tante, den Tiſch meiner Schweſter, das Sofa behalte ich ſelbſt.

b) In Commands: Geh fort! Sometimes also questions meant as commands: Willſt du jetzt ſtille ſein! Cf. § 251 *d*, end. Cf. Preface p. xvi.

c) In exclamations like Ach! (1) with rapid fall and abrupt stress (§ 262) to express impatience or incredulity; (2) with slow fall and gradual stress (§ 262) to express regret or pity. Hanoverians also use 1 for 2 and their Ach! is therefore often taken to be offensive when it is not so meant.

d) In questions having an interrogative (originally an indefinite) word: Wer hat dir das geſagt? Such questions were originally indefinite statements.

Note. (*a*) If the person asked has not understood the question, it is repeated with falling intonation: first, Wie heißt er?; repeated, Wie heißt er? (§ 303 N 4) the question being equivalent to the statement "The word I said was nie not Mihr." (*b*) But if the questioner has not understood the answer and so asks again, he uses rising intonation: Wie heißt ér?; the question being equivalent to "Who did you say it was?"

c) In disjunctive questions, the first member (the real question) has the rising intonation of a question (§ 251 *c*); the second part (originally an anticipated reply) has the falling intonation of a statement: Willſt du hier bleiben oder nach Hauſe gehen?

For repeated questions, cf. § 251 *c* & 252 *d* N.

253. Level Inflection (—, cf. § 250) is indicative of indifference or of calm thought, as in musing, etc. Absolutely level inflection is rare; there are usually slight rises and falls, § 246.

COMPOUND INTONATION

254. Compound intonation may occur when there is a rapid change in mood or a conflicting mood. What is generally designated as a simple rising or a simple falling (§§ 251, 252) intonation is often really more or less compound (cf. § 251 *f*), and what we term a compound intonation sometimes has other elements subordinate to the two chief ones, § 255 *d, e*.

255. Falling + rising (ˇ) = conclusion + expectancy, § 252 and § 251.

Remark. It will be observed that this intonation is generally associated with an incomplete or hesitating presentation of the case. Its excessive use by many Americans makes upon Germans and Englishmen an impression of weakness and indecision.

a) Apologetic or polite warning. Thus Vorſichtig! with

falling inflection is blunt, like a command, § 252 *b*; but if the speaker, when half way through, feels that it is perhaps none of his business, and that the person warned might take offence, he lets his voice rise again as in a question (251 *c*): Vorsi̬chtig!

b) Mild statement, submitted for approval: Er könnte vielleicht mitge̬hn. Cf. § 251 *e*. Similarly excuses.

c) A cautious offer = a statement of permission + query whether the offer will be accepted: Das kannst du haben.

d) Gentle refusal: Ich da̬nke, in place of the usual Ich danke. Also restricted acquiescence: Ja̬, § 247 end. Cf. § 254 end.

e) Exclamation expressing playful reproof of detected roguery: O̬h! Cf. § 254 end and § 261 N¹.

256. Rising + falling (^) = expectancy (§ 251) + the reverse (§ 252).

> Remark. It will be observed that in most cases this intonation is associated by Germans and Americans with some form of disapproval or contempt. Its lavish use by Englishmen is therefore apt to give offence where not intended.

a) Sarcastic and contemptuous replies. Ach! with rising tone shows expectancy or surprise (§ 251 *b*). If one says Ach! with rising tone but lets the tone fall again, he leads the listener to suppose he is surprised or delighted, only to chagrin him again: Âch! Similarly Dû! But Âch may also be said in consoling, especially patronizingly. Cf. R. above.

b) Exclamations expressing surprise or indignation + reproachful resignation or incredulous return to a state of satisfaction or indifference, etc.: Acĥ was! Âch! Cf. §§ 251 *b*, 252 *c*.

c) Exclamations expressing assurance, or rather surprise at doubt + calm assurance: Jâwohl! instead of the usual Jawohl!

d) Incredulous question = question + expression of incredulity: Du wollteſt hingehn? or Du wollteſt doch nicht hingehn? But in this case simple rising intonation (§251 *c*) is also common.

e) Inquiry as to a question: [Du willſt wiſſen] Ob er tot iſt? But in this case, too, the simple rising intonation (§ 251 *c*) is also common.

Note. In some parts of Germany, as also in the English that is affected by Pennsylvania German, this compound intonation is used in ordinary questions instead of rising intonation, § 251.

DEGREES OF INTONATION

257. *a*) A *high rise* accompanies elation and lack of restraint.

b) A *slight rise* denotes excitement restrained through fear or shame, for example, surprise at something to be regretted.

c) A *deep fall* accompanies determination.

d) A *slight fall* indicates unconcerned conclusion.

Chapter iij

STRESS

THE NATURE OF STRESS

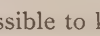
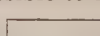
258. In quiet breathing the air comes from the lungs in a gentle stream; in speaking, it is forced out in more or less vigorous breath-impulses. The same lungful of air can be used to make many breath-impulses before the stock need be replenished. As a factor in speech, breath-impulses are called "stress," or "dynamic accent." Stress is easily confounded, on the one hand, with sonority (§ 77), and, on the other, with pitch (§ 101); the more so as the degree of stress on various sounds is to some extent dependent on their sonority (§ 259), while increase of stress is apt to be accompanied by a rise in pitch (§§ 245, 261 N 1).

Stress and Sonority

259. 1) The very things that promote sonority (openness of the organs and the production of voice, § 77) require the expenditure of much breath, and stress is, therefore, generally the greater the greater the sonority: first on vowels, next on sonorous consonants, then on fricatives, and lastly on stop consonants. In Ah! (= *ā*) the stress generally subsides, according to § 260; so too in all (= *ăl*), being weaker on the *l* than on any part of the *ă*; but in Ball it first swells and then subsides, being weaker on the *b* than on the *ă*, weaker on the end of the *ă* than on the beginning, and weaker on the *l* than on any part of the *a*.

2) But it must not be supposed that stress and sonority are always parallel. The greater need of stress that one sound has may not be met: for example, in such a word as Galle (= *gălə*), the final e is left to get on with such breath as is left on the loosening of the l (§§ 87, 85), and is, hence, very weak, §§ 100 *b*, 187 1.

THE FORMS OF STRESS

260. It is possible to keep stress uniform for a short time (**Level Stress:**), or even to increase it to a certain extent (**Swelling Stress:** ), but the most natural and usual stress begins strong and becomes weaker (**Subsiding Stress:** ). Thus the exclamation O! may be heard with level stress when one suddenly checks himself in an excited call; the same sound may be heard with swelling stress from the lips of a sufferer, especially one undergoing an operation; while O! with subsiding stress is the common exclamation of surprise. Cf. § 275 R.

261. The force with which the stream of breath issues from the lungs may be increased: if this increase is considerable, we recognize it as a new breath-impulse, making a new syllable (§ 86); if but slight, we consider it as a part of the neighboring strong impulse, and regard the two as one with **Compound Stress** (ˆ), or double swell. Cf. note below. Such stresses are common in isolated monosyllables like Da, Ja, So, etc., with long final vowel; occasionally also in monosyllables like lahm, Thal (with long vowel and following sonorous consonant), provided they stand more or less alone, or at least finally, and have unusual import. This tendency is even more common in English, especially that spoken in America, for example, in 'no,' 'on,' 'hand,' hesitating 'and,' etc. In certain German dialects — Saxon,

Thuringian, etc. — it is observed in more cases than those given above. It need not be distinguished in marking stress.

Note 1. It will be noticed that the conditions for this stress are often the same as those for compound intonations, § 255*e*.

Note 2. The line dividing monosyllables with double swell from dissyllables is one of personal feeling, § 85 N2. If the weak swell coincides with a slight superiority in sonority on the part of the sound on which it falls, the ear is apt to decide in favor of a new syllable.

262. Stress may be abrupt or gradual: **Abrupt Stress** (′) is that which, before it has had time to subside perceptibly, is suddenly cut off; **Gradual Stress** (ˋ) subsides by uniform degrees. The abrupt stress is heard in strongly stressed syllables having a short vowel: dắ, Báll, hátte; the gradual stress (1) in weak syllables: Gèhált, Bàrétt, ìſt fórt, and (2) in strong syllables having a long vowel: dà̄, Màhl, hàben.

Remark 1. A consonant closing a syllable with stress broken off abruptly while it is still strong, is naturally stronger than one closing a syllable with stress that has gradually died out or is weak. Cf. also § 100.

Remark 2. The statements made in § 262 are in general true of North German and of British English. In many parts of Germany, and in English as spoken in America, the abrupt stress is rare, mostly because of the tendency to lengthen more or less the short stressed vowels.

DEGREES OF STRESS

263. There are various degrees of stress, but it is generally not necessary to distinguish more than the **Chief** (′) and the **Secondary** (ˈ), calling all other syllables weak, or unstressed. When it is necessary to distinguish the weak stresses, they may be called **Weak** (ˈ), Very Weak (˘), and Unstressed (not marked, or symbolized by °). Sentence-

stress is best indicated by lines drawn under the stressed word; thus, _____ indicates chief stress, _____ secondary, and _____ weak; but the last may usually go unindicated. Chief stress may be increased to various degrees, especially in sentence-stress.

Note 1. (*a*) These terms are not absolute: for instance, the secondary stress of one word may be greater than that of another; that on a compound is generally greater than that on a derivative. (*b*) The secondary stress approaches in value to the chief (as the weak approaches in value to the secondary) the farther it is removed (§ 278, 3 *b*) and the longer the syllable on which it rests (N 2). (*c*) Moreover, consistency in the marking of secondary and weak stresses is not aimed at; where the learner would of himself stress correctly, these stresses may often be left unindicated.

Note 2. A heavy, or long, syllable (§ 93) must not be confounded with a stressed syllable: for example, in Ab'ſicht' the lighter syllable has the stronger stress; still, a heavy syllable has a tendency to attract the stress, and sometimes succeeds, § 277, 2.

Note 3. Sentence-stress is ordinarily indicated by the use of spaced letters (as we use italics): Er hatte z w e i Kinder, nicht d r e i. Emphatic ein 'one' is also sometimes printed Ein or éin to distinguish it from ein 'a', § 300.

THE BASIS OF STRESS-PLACING

264. The placing of stress is dependent upon various factors, which may work in harmony or at cross-purposes.

Remark. It is, therefore, at times impossible to say which of two or more likely causes may have been operative, or whether more than one may not have been (§ 275, 1). Similarly, when a vacillation in usage appears, it is not always easy to tell between what factors the conflict is. It may appear to be between rhythm (5) and logic (2 or 3 below), but really be between rhythm and a tradition (1) which has established the logical stress; it may appear to be between logic and analogy (4), but really be between logic and a tradition that has established the analogical stress, etc.

The factors are (1) tradition, (2) the state of mind of the speaker, (3) his consideration for the mind of the listener,

(4) analogy, (5) rhythm and other physical factors. Tradition is the chief factor in word-stress. The state of mind of the speaker and his consideration for that of the listener form the chief factors in sentence-stress. Analogy and rhythm may be regarded as interfering elements.

Remark. I have, therefore, taken as the basis of classification in sentence-stress, the state of mind of the speaker and his consideration of the state of mind of the listener, and these two factors will be developed as the subject is developed. Tradition (§ 265) and analogy (§ 273) require but brief treatment; but it will be necessary to consider rhythm, etc., somewhat at length (§ 274 &c.) before going on with the regular development of the subject (§ 279 &c.).

TRADITION

265. We generally stress a particular syllable of a word, and often a particular word in a sentence, because this accentuation is what we have always, or most frequently, heard. When, somewhere in the past, the usage was established, it must have been because of the working of one or more of the very factors that are still exerting their influence; but in the meantime other elements of the language may have so shifted that the effect of these forces is different to-day from what it once was. In the struggle that ensues, tradition generally holds its ground in the case of word-stress (but cf. §§ 310, 1, 316, 322–331, 360, 6, 8, 362); it is not infrequently made to yield in the case of sentence-stress, cf. particularly § 274 &c. Stress-tradition is based on association of idea and form, § 273.

Note. Under tradition may be included one's own former utterance, hence personal habit.

STATE OF MIND OF THE SPEAKER

Psychological Subject and Predicate

266. 1) A sentence involves the association of at least two ideas: the one first in mind is the psychological subject; the one that attaches itself to this is the psychological predicate. These may or may not coincide with the grammatical subject and the grammatical predicate. Thus, if John is in mind, and some action of his (say the killing of a cat) presents itself to the mind, *John* is the psychological (and grammatical) subject, and *killed the cat* the psychological (and grammatical) predicate. But if the killing of the cat is in mind, and the question arises *Who did it?* then, in *John killed the cat* (= *It was John who did it*), *killed the cat* is the psychological subject, and *John* the psychological predicate. If it is known that John has put something in the cellar, but not what, then, in *John put the apples in the cellar*, the psychological predicate is *the apples*. If it is asked where he put the apples, then *in the cellar* is the psychological predicate.

2) While it is true that a psychological subject may be any member of a sentence, and that a psychological predicate may also be any member of a sentence; still, in the great majority of cases, the grammatical subject is a psychological subject and the psychological predicate is expressed by a verb or a verbal modifier. As between the verb and its modifier, the latter is usually the psychological predicate, the verb being a psychological subject. In some cases, the verb represents only a mental glide (§ 268) from the psychological (and grammatical) subject to the psychological predicate. The modifiers of nouns (using "nouns" in the sense of "substantives and adjectives")

and of adverbs are usually subordinate (Note 3) or degenerate (Note 2) psychological predicates.

Note 1. Two persons may have the same idea in mind (it having been suggested by sight, by hearing, or otherwise); this is then psychological subject to any predication either may make as to it. But what is psychological subject to one person is often quite unknown to the other until formally stated (§§ 272, 279, 2). Moreover, I may betray by my action what is to me psychological predicate; it thus becomes psychological subject to an observer, and when I state my psychological subject, it will be his psychological predicate.

Note 2. (*a*) There may be more than one psychological predicate to one psychological subject. Thus in Ich liebe Vater und Mutter, "Ich liebe" is psychological subject to the two psychological predicates Vater and Mutter. (*b*) Such predicates may be expressed coördinately: Der Mann war alt und häßlich; or one predicate may not be expressed as a predicate at all, but be assumed and brought in attributively: Der alte Mann war häßlich. Such assumed predicates are called degenerate (§ 286) and are allied to psychological subjects. (*c*) In the sentence Der Mann auf der Treppe war häßlich, "auf der Treppe" is of an intermediate character and still near, in form at least, to the full predicate.

Note 3. Psychological subjects and psychological predicates may be subordinate to others: thus, in Ich liebe Vater und Mutter, the psychological subject "Ich liebe" is made up of the subordinate psychological subject "Ich" and the subordinate psychological predicate "liebe."

Note 4. A psychological subject or predicate may be more or less undefined; because of inability, haste, or mental laziness, we fail to define it in our own minds and so are forced to express it by an indefinite word or, if seeking to define it, by an interrogative word, § 301. Cf. also § 272, 3.

Dominance of a Particular Idea

267. That which is foremost in the mind of a man impels him to its expression more than what is in the background. The most primitive form of expression (still often heard in excited speech) is that in which only this uppermost idea, the psychological predicate, is expressed, — as

when the child says only Alle! '*Gone!*', though he knows the name of the food he has eaten or of the person that has left the room —; and in more developed forms of speech this still generally has most stress. Cf. also § 273 R.

Remark. From the same cause, excitable people, especially children, are inclined to raise the pitch when expressing the psychological predicate.

Currents of Thought

268. 1) Though the current of our thought is continuous, the rate of change varies. When the rate is slow, the thought assumes a more or less definite and stable form, and we speak of it by some such word as "concept". When the rate is rapid, we observe nothing or are only aware of a transition between the concept just past and one that we are approaching, and we realize this mental glide rather as the relation between the neighboring more definite "concepts", or "thoughts", than as a concept itself — just as, in phonetics, we are wont to limit the word "sound" to the more stable ones and call transitional sounds "glides", § 80.

2) The idea of such a relation may, however, while retaining its peculiar transitional character, become, at times, the phase of thought uppermost in mind, § 294 *b*.

269. 1) If one's speech is the immediate expression of his current of thought, each new thought will form a new predicate; and if each new thought is of such interest to him that it impresses itself with equal vividness upon his mind in spite of previous impressions there, it will be given equal stress in utterance. We thus get a series of predications with stresses varying according to the vividness of the mental impressions. This happens particularly in the talk of persons of sluggish mind; also when any one is musing

and talking to himself, or is watching the progress of an event and recounting its stages to himself or others.

2) But in the majority of cases when a man talks he is following, with various cross-cuts or deviations, an *old* train of thought; that is, he is reviving with more or less success old mental impressions, often in a different order of succession from that in which they first occurred to him and perhaps interspersed with new ones. If his mind is active, it will flit about the various aspects of a subject some time before it selects one or more for expression. When not modified by tradition, rhythm, or analogy, the stress that falls upon the elements of such talk depends in part upon the vividness of each mental impression at the time, in part upon the recollection of the vividness it had on some previous occasion, and somewhat upon the order in which, consciously or unconsciously, the elements are arranged by the speaker.

Thought and Word

270. It must not be supposed that there is in the mind a train of thought corresponding exactly to the train of words that compose a sentence. We learn to speak by hearing whole sentences, and so, from the very first, we associate a more or less complex idea with a group of words or with the most distinctly stressed word or words in the group; and, though the power to analyse developes with time, it remains true that many groups of words are not analysed but correspond to more or less simple ideas* in the mind. We must, therefore, not expect that for every word in a sentence there is a corresponding idea, for example, for es in Es regnet. Es regnet as a whole is the symbol

* The term "simple idea" is here used in a popular sense, not in the technical sense given it by Locke and his successors.

for a familiar phenomenon (§ 279 N 1), and if we try to analyse the phrase, it is usually in a more or less playful way.

Remark. As "It soots", = 'The soot (from the factory chimneys) is falling', was formed in Peoria, Ill., on the analogy of "It rains", so "It rains" was formed on the analogy of some other expression, and what "It" stood for in the first of these it is now impossible to say. In fact, these impersonals were first used without any éś or 'it' at all. See also § 301, N 1.

271. Moreover, not all words that are more or less identified as individuals have a corresponding definite mental concept. That is, they do not stand for objects (substantives), qualities (adjectives), or phenomena (verbs), but indicate the more or less vague relations (of position, time, quantity, &c.) existing between more definite concepts, § 268 and § 292, 3; or they simply refer to concepts that, as psychological subjects, have become more or less vague in the mind (§ 292, 1), or have not yet assumed definiteness, § 292, 2. Such words may be termed Anæmic Words, in distinction from Vivic Words, or such as designate more definite concepts. See §§ 291 &c.

CONSIDERATION FOR THE MIND OF THE LISTENER

272. 1) If one realizes, though faintly, that the mind of another is not prepared for the results of the train of thought that has been passing through his own mind, he may form or stress his sentence differently from what he otherwise would have done, cf. §§ 279, 2, 288, 2 end, 302, 1, 303, 3, 303 N 4. People differ very much in ability to realize the state of mind of the listener and to adjust their statements to it.

2) (*a*) The most primitive form of consideration for the mind of the listener consists in adding the psychological subject after the statement of the psychological predicate,

cf. examples under § 279. A child eating pudding made of cake and whipped cream suddenly blurts out: Alter Kuchen, dies ist. (*b*) To seek out in advance and emphasize those words that may be necessary to prepare the mind of the listener for the psychological predicate, generally requires some mental development and a mind free from passion. But if the mental impression made by a psychological subject is still vivid, it may for this reason be expressed before the psychological predicate — just as it preceded it in conception, — and not because of consideration for the state of mind of the listener.

3) The very effort to express one's self often leads to the further development of one's thought or brings into prominence or definiteness what had not been thought of, was in the mental background, or was but vaguely defined. In other words, what was psychological subject may in the process of expression become psychological predicate, or a new psychological predicate (often an undefined one, § 266, N 4) may arise.

Remark. Stress may be much increased to overcome inattention, and similarly to overcome deafness or distance.

ANALOGY, OR ASSOCIATION OF IDEA OR FORM IN THE MIND OF THE SPEAKER

273. (*a*) Familiarity with the accentuation of the verbal expression of a certain idea may lead one to stress in a similar way the expression of a similar idea, cf. §§ 282, 3, 290, 4; (*b*) the mental association of a word with another of like form may lead one to stress it in the same way, §§ 330, 4 end, 311, 319, 1 R, &c.; and (*c*) for similar reasons, one may stress any word that is contrasted with a stressed word; so dich in O du Narr! Ich dachte nicht an dich, sondern an deinen Vater. See Johanna in § 303.

Remark. The tendency to stress that part of a word wherein it is different from another (§§ 316, 318 N 1, 326, 332 *a*), is a special case of § 267; that being psychological subject which is alike in both words.

RHYTHM AND CERTAIN PHYSICAL CONDITIONS

Prevailing Rhythm

274. 1) A heavy stress implies the expenditure of considerable breath; before another vigorous breath-impulse can be made, the organs require some time in which to recover. During this time, a weak syllable or two may be uttered or a pause be made; but to pronounce several syllables having weak stress would be as difficult as to sound one with heavy stress. As a result, the prevailing rhythm of Modern German, as of Modern English, is alternate, that is, there is a succession of heavy and light stresses. Tradition and logic at times require the juxtaposition of several weak syllables or of two or more heavily stressed ones; nevertheless, the trochaic or iambic character of most German prose is marked. Moreover, where tradition or logic would require an irregular rhythm, the usual rhythm may prevail in spite of tradition or logic (§§ 277, 278), or the difficulty may at times be overcome by a different arrangement of the words than would otherwise be made; compare the displacement of "only" in English: "I on'ly want' to see' him" for the more logical but halting "I want' o'nly to see' him."

2) The accentuation of a word or syllable is, therefore, not in all cases a fixed or uniform thing, but may be more or less modified by position relative to other stressed or unstressed words or syllables. Compare the stress of an in Er ſchrieb an alle with that in Er ließ die Blicke an der ſchlanken Geſtalt niedergleiten; Ich hatte etwas bei mir

is stressed ˘ ˈ ˘ ˈ ˈ ˈ, but in North and Middle Germany Er ſagte ſo etwas is often stressed ˘ ˈ ˘ ˈ ˘ ˈ; ein halb(es) Dutzend (ˈ ˈ ˘ ˈ ˘), ein halbes Dutzend Eier (˘ ˈ ˘ ˈ ˘ ˈ ˘ or ˘ ˈ ˘ ˈ ˘, § 278, 1), ein halb Dutzend Eier (˘ ˈ ˈ ˘ ˈ ˘), § 278. Observe the pause (§ 274, 1) separating strong stresses in =ſtalt | nie= above and in A′ | B′ | C′ (or A′ B C′, § 343).

Remark 1. In the case of word-stress, rhythm is most apt to prevail (over logic, tradition, and the analogy of other words of the same class) in those words that are most frequently used, and soonest with those persons or communities that use them most, § 331, 2. Thus, many people say Groß′=her′zog′, while in Thuringia, and particularly at Weimar, the Grand Duke's capital, the word is usually sounded Groß′=herzog′, § 364, 1. In sentence-stress, rhythm is most apt to prevail (over logic) in idiomatic and oft-repeated expressions, for example, in tauben Ohren predigen, § 290, 4, in ein oder zwei Jahren, § 289, 2 end. Cf. also § 298, 3 R 3.

Remark 2. Of course, rhythm has still wider sway in verse, and now and then rhythmical stress may be transferred to prose through the influence of familiar verses: Erl′kö′nig hat mir ein Leids gethan, § 277, 2; Es iſt Behut=ſamkeit vor der′ Gefahr, with more stress on der than on the neighboring syllables, although it is only the article and has no logical importance, § 299, 1.

Crescendo, Decrescendo, and Equal Stress

275. If in a series of stresses each succeeding stress is weaker than the one preceding, the word or sentence in which the series occurs is said to have Decrescendo Stress, and vice-versa Crescendo Stress. If a number of connected words are stressed with equal force, they are said to have Equal Stress, § 280.

Remark. Swelling and subsiding stress (§ 260) are also often called crescendo and decrescendo stress.

1) The prevailing stress of old Germanic was decrescendo. A study of the old poetry shows that of two or

more nouns grammatically joined (whether substantive or adjective) the first had the heaviest stress: sunu Healfdenes for our 'the son of Healfdene'; eald gewinna where we should say 'the old striver.' And we know that a heavy stress fell upon the first syllable of a word, §§ 309, &c. This accentuation was original with many words (§ 309 ft) and must have been extended to others by analogy (§ 273). But the principle according to which the heaviest stress falls upon the psychological predicate (§ 279 & § 272, 2*a*), and certain physical causes (for example, that which has changed well'-bred' into well'-bred' in attributive positions, § 278) doubtless contributed their share toward making the decrescendo stress general in sentence and word.

2) There is reason to believe that the change from decrescendo to crescendo stress had begun in the time of the oldest prose and that the poetry represents a partly obsolescent usage. The decrescendo rhythm is still usually maintained in words and in a few conglomerates like Spring'insfeld', Mit'ternacht', but it has generally yielded to crescendo stress [(˘)' (˘)' (˘)] in ordinary noun-groups; for it may be stated, with only the reserve necessary on the score of §§ 290, 3, 278, 1 *a*, that of two or more nouns (substantive or adjective) grammatically joined, but not forming a compound word, the *last* now generally receives the heaviest stress. That this may even defy logical stress is shown in § 290, 4. The change of decrescendo stress to crescendo is due, § 264 R: —

(*a*) to the more frequent use of proclitic words (§§ 290, 2, 291, 292) and the reduction or loss of final unstressed syllables;

(*b*) to the tendency to place a psychological predicate late in the sentence, § 272, 2: the frequent occurrence of stressed psychological predicates at the end of a clause makes one feel the necessity (§ 273) of bringing a heavy

stress toward the close, even if there be no logical reason for it, § 290, 4;

(*c*) to economy of force, § 277, 1 *b*.

3) (*a*) The new stress has invaded words to but a moderate extent, and is then often due to § 277, 2. It is found (1) in some compound nouns (some adjectives, § 322, 2 *c*, numerous geographical names, § 331, a few common substantives, § 330), and (2) in some compound particles, §§ 359, 322, 1, 360, 5, 7, 8. (*b*) North Germany has yielded to the crescendo stress more than Middle and South Germany (§§ 290, 4, 360, 5; cf. also § 283, 3). (*c*) Modern English (at least as spoken in America) is yielding still more, the tendency to stress the second element in compound substantives being easily observable, for example, *ice'-cream'*, *ap'ple pie'*, and often *horse'rad'ish*, and at the end of a clause (§ 277 R), even *high' school'*, *coal'-stove'*, &c. That English has gone farther than German in this direction may be due to several causes, § 264 R: to the vastly greater number of compound words in German, to the all but total loss of inflectional endings in English, which frequently leaves a heavily stressed syllable at the end of a clause and so favors crescendo stress, and to the position of the stressed modifiers of verbs, which usually follow them in English but often precede them in German, for example, in subordinate clauses and in compound tenses.

Stress-Groups

276. As has been stated above (§ 94), our talk is divided into stress-groups containing one heavily stressed syllable usually accompanied by one or more less heavily stressed syllables. These groups are sometimes divided from one another by a more or less distinct pause (stress-groups with pause division), but often the only division between them is

the place of weakest stress (stress-groups with weak division), and it is frequently very difficult to make out just where this place is. Compare the difference between dynamic syllables and sonoric syllables, §§ 85, &c.

Remark. To judge from the German and English that I have observed, Sweet's practice of placing the boundary regularly before a heavily stressed syllable and of separating initial weak syllables from following heavy ones, seems mechanical. With this is associated the implication that the rhythm of Modern English is always decrescendo. I find it not uniform, and more commonly crescendo. Possibly London English is in this respect more conservative than the English that I am most familiar with. Cf. § 289, 2 ft.

Stress Weakened

277. 1) A stress is often weakened when next to another stress.

(*a*) *After* a stronger one, this is due to the fact that force, having been expended, is wanting, § 274, also *c* below.

(*b*) But a stress may also be weakened when it comes *before* another, and that even if one or more unstressed syllables intervene: this is due to the natural tendency to economise force so long as there is need of it.* **Economy of Force** often results in the change of equal stress into crescendo (§ 280, 2), and may even (2 below, and § 290, 4) change, or help to change, decrescendo into equal or into crescendo.

Remark. This is most apt to happen before a pause; that is, near the end of a clause and in predicate rather than attributive positions (cf. § 278, I., 1 *a* and §§ 324, 327, 329 ft, 360, 8).

(*c*) When both preceded and followed by others, a stress is particularly apt to be weakened; almost certainly so if it

* This may be observed in children just learning to speak and having as yet no speech habits.

rests on a weak syllable and they on heavier ones, §§ 363, 364, 365, 5. Cf. also § 278. When the intermediate syllable is heavier than the preceding one, its stress is often increased to the disadvantage of that of the others, cf. 2 below.

2) Even the chief stress may be weakened to the advantage of a following secondary stress on a heavy syllable (§ 263 N 2), provided that be succeeded by one or more syllables; and this is the more apt to happen the lighter the syllable upon which the chief stress originally rested and the heavier and the more numerous the syllables following the syllable having what was originally the secondary stress, cf. 1 *b* above. So leben'dig (< *lē'bĕn'dig*), but usually nōt'wĕn'dig; Wach'ol'der but Mäß'hol'der (§ 310, 1); Kar'frei'tag but Kar'woch'e; All'gē'genwart' and all'mäch'tig, but All'macht' (§ 330, 1); un'bedingt', &c., § 324.

Stress Strengthened

278. 1. A word or syllable adjoining one with stress that is reduced, or is for other reasons weak, is apt to get a somewhat stronger stress (§ 263 N 1 *b*), an alternate rhythm being thus established.

1) (˘) ' (˘) ' (˘) ' (˘) may become (˘) ' (˘) ' (˘) ' (˘): Er iſt ſehr gut (§ 290, 2) but Er iſt ein ſehr guter Mann (see § 289, 2 & N), and so ch is *tse-hā'* but chs is *tsē'-hă'-'es'* Schönes Brot but Ein ſchönes Stück Brot; cf. also the examples under § 274 and the last in § 284.

(*a*) Whence arises a frequent vacillation in the stress of words and groups of words according as they stand in attributive or predicate position, cf. §§ 277 R, 289, 2 N, 324 *a* & *b*, 327 & 3, 329 ft, 360, 8, 313 R *b*.

(*b*) Similarly, dissyllabic prepositions, conjunctions, &c., have more stress than monosyllabic ones (§ 296), and

their stress increases if they are followed by weak words or syllables, § 263 N 1 *b*.

2) ' ' ' may become ' ' ', especially in compounds: Vorurteil, &c., § 364, § 285, 4 *b*.

3) (*a*) Even a very weak syllable may become stronger if between two other weak syllables, so -er in Ein herrlicher Roman (˘ ' ˘ ' ˘ '), but Eine herrliche Aussicht (' ˘ ' ˘ ' '), § 365, 3 *b* & 4. (*b*) A secondary stress may become nearly, if not quite, equal to a chief stress, if separated some distance from it, §§ 263 N 1 *b*, 289, 2. (*c*) A secondary stress on a long syllable may become the chief stress, § 277, 2.

11. On the other hand, when a pause is made for rhetorical effect or to admit a parenthesis or other interruption, the force that would have been carried on in the ordinary completion of the sentence is often allowed to fall heavily upon the word just before the pause, cf. Frau in § 288, and daß in Er sagte, daß, da er, &c.

Chapter iv

SENTENCE-STRESS §§ 279–307

GENERAL PRINCIPLE

279. 1) The psychological predicate, being uppermost in the mind of the speaker (§ 267), is heavily stressed, while the psychological subject is often hurriedly stated, is but vaguely alluded to* (as by a pronoun, an adverb, or the like), or is entirely omitted.

2) If the psychological subject has not yet been presented to the mind of the listener, consideration of this fact on the part of the speaker, will lead him to express the psychological subject more clearly and often to put more† stress upon it than he would have done, § 272.

Fertig? 'Ready?' (= 'Are you ready?' the psychological subject being entirely omitted). Similarly, Willkommen! — „Hat er ſie geſchlagen?" "Ja" (or "Nein," „Wahrſcheinlich," &c.) "Did he strike her?" "Yes," &c. (The answer contains only the psychological predicate, inasmuch as the psychological subject is supplied by the question.) Simi-

---

* This is often the case even long after the psychological subject was mentioned, especially if the speakers have in the meantime been separated. Some people are so careless about expressing the psychological subject that it is constantly necessary to ask them what they are talking about.

† Unusual adaptation of one's expression to the state of mind of the listener (so especially in teaching and in public speaking) may lead one to give most stress to a psychological subject. Cf. also § 302, 1.

larly, „Sie hat uns verlaſſen." „Unmöglich!" (or „Kein Wunder," &c.). — Falſch iſt der Kerl 'Deceitful is what the fellow is' (the psychological subject being added with secondary stress). Der Unglückliche! murmelte er (the last two words constitute the added psychological subject, in which er is the subordinate psychological subject, and murmelte predicate). Das ſind meine Richter 'Those are my judges' (the psychological subject being but referred to). Sie kommt von ihrem Pfaffen 'She's coming from the priest' (Faust and Mephistopheles see Margaret as she is coming, and so Sie and kommt are both psychological subjects). Ich danke Ihnen, Herr General (Ich and Ihnen, as they refer to the persons talking, are psychological subjects, and so is the weak vocative, N 2, end). Feuer! 'Fire!' Es regnet 'It is raining.' Mich hungert's 'I am hungry'.

Note 1. In the case of impersonal verbs and similar expressions, the present phenomenon (smoke or light; the sound of falling drops, moisture striking the face or hands, or the sight of the drops themselves; or the gnawing sensation in the stomach) is the psychological subject, and the general notion of fire, rain, or hunger is the psychological predicate. Cf. §§ 270, 301 N 1.

Note 2. The vocative may have various functions, but it is usually a psychological predicate, meaning that it is the person addressed who is to pay attention, come, render assistance, consider or stop what he is doing, get out of the way, be on the look-out, or whatever the circumstances (the psychological subject) may be. The vocative is then heavily stressed, and the psychological subject, if not already present to the mind of the listener (being his psychological predicate, § 266 N 1), is often left to be observed, but may be suggested by the tone of the voice, and, if considered necessary, may even be expressed and stressed, §§ 279, 2, 272, 2. The vocative is employed in calling to a distant person, in attracting the attention of one nearer by, in entreating, in threatening, and in assuring. Out of the last use develops its employment as a sign of politeness or, sarcastically, of impudence; and in such expressions as 'Yes, sir,' it is little more than a suffix. When the speaker has the full attention

of the person spoken to, the vocative expresses (as a minor predication or only a psychological subject) the attitude of the speaker to the listener, what is usually expressed by intonation, facial expression, etc.; in such cases it has secondary or weak stress.

Note 3. An exclamation is heavily stressed because it expresses a psychological predicate, namely, the state of mind suggested by the psychological subject, the cause of the exclamation. Cf. § 267, also N 1 above.

Equal Stress

280. 1) Where there is more than one psychological predicate (§ 266 N 2), we expect and sometimes find equal stress (§ 275) on the words expressing the various predicates. Ich liebe Vater und Mutter. Er kann leſen, ſchreiben und rechnen. Dies oder das.

2) Equal stress does not, however, occur as frequently as might be expected. Economy of force (§ 277, 1 *b*) generally weakens the preceding stress to the advantage of the last: Vater und Mutter. Druck und Verlag von Breitkopf und Härtel. Dies oder jenes. Als ſehe und kenne ſie uns nicht. So the sentence above may appear as Er kann leſen, ſchreiben und rechnen. Similarly 1893 is normally achtzehnhundertdreiundneunzig (§ 343 N *c*) — but achtzehnhundertdreiundneunzig if drei alone is psychological predicate (§ 303), which accentuation has become normal in parts of South Germany, just as dreizehn, &c. have everywhere.

281. In the case of a series of predications equally affecting the mind of the speaker, we may expect equal stress, or, especially in rhetorical speech, climactic, that is, constantly crescendo stress. As a rule, however, economy of force leads one, while putting equal stress on all but the last two, to allow the one before the last somewhat weaker stress and save a liberal stress for the last.

Remark. Equal stress may also occur in the case of degenerate predicates, §§ 289, 2, 288, 2 end.

MODIFIERS

MODIFIERS OF VERBS

282. 1) As stated above (§ 266, 2), the modifiers of verbs are generally psychological predicates to them and consequently more heavily stressed: Er gab einem Herrn zwei Bücher. Es kam näher und näher.

2) When the verbal form comes last, the preceding modifiers frequently suggest its idea, which is therefore in the mind of the listener by the time the verb is expressed, and the verb needs no more stress than a word that stands for a psychological subject already expressed to the listener, hence not even that amount of stress that might be induced by consideration for the state of mind of the listener (see § 279, 2). For examples, see below.

3) This is so general that the stress in cases in which it is not true, usually follows the analogy of these, § 273. In the following in die Stadt implies gingſt, but Haus does not imply verſchließen, still (except in parts of North Germany) the sentence would usually be stressed: Da du in die Stadt gingſt, mußte ich das Haus verſchließen 'As you went to town, I had to lock up the house.' The order of words in English brings the heavier stress upon the second of the two words, and one is tempted to carry this accentuation into German, for example, Da du in die Stadt gingſt, etc.

283. 1) (*a*) When a modifier next a verb represents a psychological subject or is an anæmic word (including adverbs of intensity, frequency, etc., § 292, 3 *c*, but see § 294), chief stress falls on the verb (§ 285 R): Er will mir die Bücher nicht geben, but Er will mir die Bücher geben. (*b*) This is also true in the case of tautological modifiers (§ 292, 1 *b*): Sie unterhielten ſich zuſammen 'They were conversing with

one another.' Sie wollten miteinander fechten. (*c*) But compound verbs like dableiben, hinfallen, stress da and hin more than the preceding simple verb (Sie bleiben da), although da &c. now add little or nothing to the idea already expressed by the verb. But they yield chief stress to a preceding modifier (§ 285, 3 *a*), except for § 285, 3 *b*.

2) When the verb alone is the psychological predicate and all else, including the modifier, is psychological subject, the heavier stress generally falls upon the verb: Er hat die Sachen in den Wagen geworfen 'He *threw* the things into,' &c.

3) Crescendo stress in the case of modifier and following verb is more frequent in parts of North Germany than elsewhere (see § 277, 1 *b*, 275, 3 *b*); so Wir aßen was das gnädige Fräulein mir vom Schloß geſchickt hatte, instead of the more usual Schloß geſchickt hatte.

4) Infinitives and participles, being verbal modifiers, have more stress than the verbs they depend upon: Ich hatte geſchlafen. Weil ich ſchlafen wollte. The auxiliary verbs in time degenerated into anæmic words and now have little or no stress, § 292, 3 *b*.

5) As regards stress, derivative verbs, like ant'wor'ten, veran'laſſ'en, etc., fare like the infinitives and perfect participles of separable compound verbs, see § 285, 4.

Cf. also § 285, 4 *b*.

Series of Modifiers

284. A series of modifiers of a verb may be a series of predications, like the original train of thought (§§ 268, 281). Or one of the modifiers is the original psychological predicate, while the others are such as arise through consideration for the mind of the listener (§ 272, 3), or are psychological subjects; in such cases the original psychological predicate is usually retained until the last (§ 272, 2 *b*).

In either case, the last modifier generally has most stress: Ich wachte die Nacht bei ihm (§ 298, 1, & R 3) in der Stube. Ich ritt gleich auf einem Seitenweg voran. Dem Knecht hatte ich gesagt, er sollte auf geradem Weg [§ 286 or § 290, 4; or geradem Weg, § 290, 3] nach der Försterei fahren, und hatte mit dem Förster alles [or die Sache] besprochen (§ 285, 2 R). Er fing an zu reden [but also Er fing an zu reden, § 278, 1].

285. 1) Of course, a psychological subject may be incorporated in a sentence in the capacity of a modifier, just as it may in that of a grammatical predicate (§ 266, 1, 2); it will then generally not have chief stress even if it follows (cf. die Sache 'the matter' above, also § 283, 1): but such a psychological subject is rarely put last, § 284.

2) Similarly, if the modifier is an anæmic word, it does not have chief stress (§§ 292, 3 *c*, 318, *e*); so alles above.

Remark. In either case this will throw chief stress on an adjoining verb; so on besprochen above. Cf. § 283, 1.

3) (*a*) The non-verbal part of a compound verb usually has less stress than a preceding modifier that is less commonly united with the verb: Ich machte gleich ein Fenster zu. Du siehst so erregt aus. Seine Augen wandten sich nach dem Dorf hinüber. Cf. also § 297. (*b*) But the non-verbal part of a compound verb may have most stress if the preceding modifier belongs under § 292, 3 *c*: Bleiben Sie ein paar Minuten da! 'Stay a few minutes!'; unless (*c*) on the score of § 294 *b*: Bleiben Sie nur ein paar Minuten da! 'Stay just a few minutes!'

4) In the cases treated in 3 above, the verbal part of the compound precedes; but even when it follows (as in the case of the infinitive and the perfect participle, § 341), the non-verbal part of the compound verb very frequently gets less stress than preceding modifiers: Ich werde auf die Erde hinfallen. (*a*) So especially if the whole compound verb

(like the verbal part of a compound verb, § 282, 2) is implied in what precedes: daß Rhena Wenkſtern auch fernerhin wieder zu uns in den Garten herüberkomme. This is particularly the case in idiomatic phrases, from the first few words of which one can anticipate the rest: Er wird dir den Hals abſchneiden. So: daß dieſe ſchließlich den Sieg davontrug. Or (cf. *b* below) Hals abſchneiden, Sieg davontrug. (*b*) If the non-verbal part of the compound be preceded by an emphatic word (especially if a monosyllable), whether another modifier or not, the stress of the nonverbal part of the verb is apt to be weakened (§ 277, 1 *a*) and may become less than that of the verb proper: Auf einem vorſpringenden Aſte hatte ſich bequem ein Fink niedergelaſſen or Fink niedergelaſſen. Cf. *a* end and § 278, I. & 2.

MODIFIERS OF NOUNS

(SUBSTANTIVES AND ADJECTIVES)

AND OF ADVERBS

286. As stated above (§ 266, N 2 *b*), the modifiers of nouns and of adverbs are usually degenerate psychological predicates; those that follow the word they modify have more of the form and often more of the value of true predicates. Those that precede are usually less strongly stressed, those that follow more strongly stressed, than the word they modify.

Modifier Following

287. Der König, wenn er gut iſt,* wird ſo was nicht thun '*The king, if (he is) good, will not do such a thing.*' Sie

* It should not be overlooked that in §§ 287–290 the spacing of the type is not intended to indicate emphasis or stress (§ 263 N 3), but to point out modifiers.

besitzt ein Haus (, das) aus Stein (gebaut (ist) '*She owns a house (which is) built) of stone.*' Der Baum (, der) hinter unserem Hause (steht,) ist vom Blitze getroffen worden '*The tree (that stands) back of our house has been struck by lightning.*' Die Freunde meines Vaters, &c. '*The friends of my father.*' Das Königreich Bayern. Schloß Warnow. Villa Zerbst. Das Hospital zum Heiligen Geist. Das Wirtshaus zum Hirsch. Hotel Kronprinz. Mein Freund Heinrich. Vater Rhein. Mutter Natur. Fürst Bismarck (and so Fürst'abt' and Fürst'bisch'of). Dr. Koch. Herr Richter. Hans Sachs. Minna von Barnhelm. Walther-Jena, § 64. And so Friedrich Wilhelm.

Note. (*a*) The more common titles and Christian names have very weak stress, having now fallen more or less into the category of § 290, 2. (*b*) In Erich Schmidt, nicht Johannes Schmidt, Schmidt is not a modifier, but the psychological subject.

288. 1) In a series of coördinate modifiers the last gets the chief stress: Eine Frau (§ 278, II.) jung, schön und klug. But the stress of the one before the last may be weaker than that of the preceding, according to §§ 277, 1 *b*, 278, 1. Compare § 289, 2 end.

2) If a psychological subject be incorporated in a sentence in the capacity of a modifier (compare § 266, 2), it, of course, does not have the chief stress (§ 279, 1): Das Dach des Hauses* war schon in Flammen '*The roof of the house was now rapt in flames.*' But such a psychological subject, when not yet presented to the mind of the listener, may be given secondary stress (cf. § 279, 2) or stress equal to that of the word modified. Cf. also § 278, I., 1.

* Cf. § 287 ff.

Modifier Preceding

289. 1) As stated above (§ 286), modifiers of a following noun or adverb are usually less heavily stressed than it is: Der gute* König, &c. Sie beſitzt ein prachtvolles Landgut und ein ſteinernes Haus, das äußerſt wertvoll iſt. Er iſt eine Stunde eher geſtorben. (Um) halb zwei 'At half past one.' Auf dem Pariſer Platz.

2) Equal stress is seldom† used except when the modifier is long and has various degrees of stress (§ 278, 3*b*): auf einem vorſpringenden Aſte; or when there is more than one modifier: Wir gingen langſam unter den ſchönen hohen Bäumen und, &c. '*We went slowly along under the beautiful, high trees*, &c.'; and even then the word modified often gets the heaviest stress while the stress of the last modifier is weaker than that of those preceding, according to § 278, I., 1: In ein oder zwei Tagen. Compare § 280, 2 and § 288, 1.

> Note. It will be observed that this produces an alternate rhythm. Similarly, when the stress of the modified word is reduced, the stress of the preceding modifier is often increased, § 278, 1*a*. Das hab' ich oft gehört (except for § 290, 3 or § 305), but Eine oftgehörte Klage. So with eng verbunden, dicht belaubt, viel bewundert, &c., some of which are often written, especially attributively, as one word, like the conglomerates hellgelb, dunkelrot, hochfein, &c., which are not always easily distinguished from the loose compounds in § 329. Cf. § 336.

290. 1) When a psychological subject‡ is incorporated in a sentence in the capacity of a modifier (cf. § 285, 1) before

---

* Cf. § 287 ft.

† This I find to be true also of the English I have observed; Sweet reports equal stress for London English. Cf. § 276 R.

‡ The size and the color of objects are apt to attract the attention before one makes out what the objects are; that is, they are apt to be psychological subjects.

the word modified, it too is, of course, less strongly stressed than that. Having spoken of his father, one might add: Meines Vaters (or ſeine, cf. 3 below) Freunde konnten ihm nicht helfen '*My father's friends could not help him.*' Der König war tapfer, aber die königliche (§ 303, 2 & N 1) Garde &c. '*The king was brave, but the royal guards,*' &c.

Remark. It is often impossible to distinguish between psychological subjects and degenerate psychological predicates.

2) As a very large number of attributive modifiers (adjectives before substantives, adverbs before adjectives and other adverbs) have lost their original force, and their continued use is largely a matter of custom or of form, they generally have little or no stress (but cf. § 263 N. 1). These are (*a*) Anæmic words (§§ 291, 292): der Mann, eine Frau, dieſe Bilder, mein Hut, manche Menſchen, &c., recht bald, ſehr hübſch*, &c.; (*b*) Adjectives in conventional formulas: Geehrter Herr 'Dear Sir,' Guten Morgen! (but cf. § 305 N 2); (*c*) Names of the producers of noted books, &c.: Goethes Fauſt, Haydns Schöpfung, Correggios Nacht.

Remark. Some of these modifiers belong, or originally belonged, under § 290, 1; others, having become conventional and so anticipated, are really psychological subjects too.

3) A modifier may become a full predicate and have the chief stress; this implies that the rest of the sentence is psychological subject: Das kann ich auch mit der linken Hand 'I can do that with my left hand too.' Ich denke an Marlowes Fauſt 'I refer to Marlowe's Faust (not to Goethe's).' Ein edler Menſch! Sie iſt ſehr hübſch.

* These cases are due to the common tendency to exaggerate; in time the exaggerated form of speech comes to mean no more than the simple. It would be impossible to draw the line between these cases and the similar use of such words as groß, viel, wenig, etc., and difficult to draw one between this use of the words and their proper use, § 294.

Note. (*a*) In speaking of localities, the word Straße, Gaſſe, or whatever it may be, is often psychological subject and so gets less stress than the name does. This is the more apt to be so the more common the designation: thus almost always in the case of Straße, Gaſſe, and Weg; sometimes with Allee, but rarely with Chauſſee and Platz (§ 289, 1; for compounds like Bismarckplatz, see § 317): die Wilhelm Straße (or, as a compound, die Wil'helmſtra'ße), in der kleinen Brüder Gaſſe, der Environ Weg. (*b*) Usage may vary as a designation is common or not in a given locality: thus, in Dresden, where there are numerous *allees*, the chief stress usually falls on the name; still even there it is more usual to say die Neuſtädter Allee, in contrast to other neuſtädter things, or according to § 331, 2 N.

Remark. The word Willen in um Gottes willen, &c., though still written as a separate word after the genitive of a noun, has really degenerated into a sort of preposition or suffix, as it has in meinetwillen &c., and as -halben &c. have (§ 360, 3, 4). But see also § 305 and ft.

4) Even in these cases the usual accentuation of modifier and modified word (cf. § 289) sometimes prevails — with some people more frequently than with others —: Das kann ich auch mit der linken Hand. Die Mutter guter Kinder hat viel, wofür ſie dankbar ſein kann, &c. Tauben Ohren predigen. Ein edler Menſch. So we may hear in English such sentences as: "He left these here and went to get some other ones" for "other ones". While often due to analogy (§ 273), this illogical stress is, doubtless, also promoted by economy of force (§ 277, 1*b* & R); it prevails in English and in the speech of North Germany to a greater extent than in German generally. Thus, Geſtern kam er zu mir um fünf Uhr (§ 300), but, before a pause, often fünf Uhr in North Germany, and 'He came to me yesterday at five o'clock' in English. The noun standing before alt, hoch, &c., generally receives the chief stress: Er iſt zwei Jahr alt, still North Germans sometimes say, Er iſt zwei Jahr alt, as we say, 'He is two years old' in English.

ANÆMIC WORDS

291. 1) There are words that do not designate any object, attribute, or phenomenon, but fulfil their function in speech by referring to something, by showing the relations between things, by limiting the force of other words, etc. Such words we have called Anæmic Words, § 271. As they generally either refer to psychological subjects or designate that which is conventional and therefore anticipated, or vague and undefined, or only show the relation that more definite ideas bear to one another, or the degree of this relationship (§ 268), they generally have little or no stress (but see § 294).

2) What in one language is expressed by an anæmic word, may in another be expressed by a suffix, a prefix, or some internal change in a word; in fact, anæmic words at times become prefixes or suffixes. Thus, the be- of befehlen and the b- of bleiben were originally the same as the preposition bei (§ 295); cf. also *nt* in *dont* and *all* in the Southern *you all* = 'you', where *all* is practically only a sign of the plural.

3) What is in one language expressed by an anæmic word may be left unexpressed in another, cf. German der Mann or ein Mann, but Latin *homo*. In German an anæmic word may occasionally be omitted, for example, the auxiliary haben when final. Other words may be omitted in abbreviated speech, for example, in calling at a distance and in telegraphing, or in the speech of children just learning to talk, § 270.

292. The most important anæmic words (cf. also § 290, 2) are: —

1) Grammatical symbols for psychological subjects that have been mentioned or are otherwise suggested to the mind of the listener, — (*a*) personal, reflexive, relative, and

weak (§ 299, 2) demonstrative pronouns; relative and weak demonstrative adverbs; possessive and weak demonstrative adjectives, and the definite article; (*b*) tautological words like zuſammen, miteinander, wieder, etc.: Sie haben ſich wieder verſöhnt und unterhalten ſich miteinander 'They have become reconciled with one another and are now conversing together.'

2) Grammatical symbols for undefined psychological subjects or predicates, namely, indefinite and interrogative words, §§ 301, 302.

3) Words denoting the relations ideas bear to one another: (*a*) conjunctions, prepositions, copulative verbs, like und, doch; mit, durch; ſein, werden, (er)ſcheinen, machen, haben; (*b*) words denoting tense or mood, inclination or ability, that is, auxiliary verbs like haben, mögen, können, (§ 283, 4); (*c*) words denoting degree of intensity, frequency, etc., that is, numeral adjectives, the indefinite article, and words such as manche, viel, genug, ſehr, recht, häufig, wieder (§ 341, 2), gewöhnlich, kaum, nie, nicht, &c.

293. Historically, anæmic words are, in most and possibly in all cases, degenerations of vivic words, § 271. Thus ſehr originally meant 'sore' (still so in parts of North and South Germany) and as adverb 'painfully'; in time most Germans came to use it to indicate a high degree, whether pleasant or unpleasant — as some people speak of "awfully nice things." Similarly *second* originally meant 'following'.

294. (*a*) Some anæmic words may still have their original meaning and stress; thus, some of the words in § 292, 3*c*. (*b*) Moreover, an anæmic word may at any time represent a psychological predicate and be heavily stressed; in which case the rest of the sentence is psychological subject, see § 268, 2: „Nehmen Sie Rahm oder Zucker?" "Do you take cream or sugar?" „Rahm und Zucker, wenn ich bitten darf"

"Cream *and* sugar, if you please." Er glaubte er müßte 'He thought he had to.' Ich meine dēn (§ 299, 2) Mann, dort 'I mean that man, there.' „Sie sind doch sein Freund?" „Ich bin nicht sein Freund" or simply „Nein." So ent'weder (§ 360, 6) is frequently stressed, less often oder. Cf. also § 296.

295. Words that are frequently unstressed, in time come to have a slurred form by the side of the full form. In slurred forms the vowel is usually shortened (§ 144), and sometimes changed or lost (§ 118 and N) and consonants, too, are apt to be dropped, §§ 113, 114, 121. Thus, when the same word is used as adverb and preposition, the latter not only generally loses its stress, but its vowel is apt to be shortened. Compare Mach' mir die Thür zū! 'Shut the door for me!' with Komm zŭ mīr! 'Come to me!'

296. Anæmic words, especially aber and dissyllabic prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, etc., may have secondary stress according to § 278, 1 *b* & § 263 N 1 *b*: zwischen den Zweigen und unter den Bäumen. Similarly war acquires some stress in Heinrich war, als alter Freund, mit in die Kirche gegangen, § 278, 3 *a*.

297. The preposition that follows its noun retains the secondary stress that it got according to § 285, 3 *a*: den Tag über 'all day,' die Nacht durch 'throughout the night.'

Preposition and Personal or Reflexive Pronoun

298. 1) If the pronoun refers to what is psychological subject, and does not need stress according to § 279, 2, the heavier stress falls upon the preposition. Ich mache mir nichts aus ihr 'I don't care for her' (but Ich mache mir nichts aus ihr according to § 294 *b* and §§ 277, 1, 278, I., 2, 298, R 3). Komm her, ich will mit dir spielen 'Come here, I want to play with you.' Wollen Sie nicht einmal zū mīr kommen?

'Won't you come and see me sometime?' Sie hat dich nicht nur gern, ſie hat ſich ſogar in dich verliebt 'She doesn't simply like you, she has fallen in love with you' (compare 2 below; this too may become in dich verliebt by R 3 below). Reflexives are almost always psychological subjects (but cf. 3 below). Ich habe was bei mir 'I've something with me.' Er iſt außer ſich 'He is beside himself.' Wirf nicht die gute Gelegenheit von dir 'Don't lose the good opportunity.' Ich muß ſagen, das hat viel für ſich 'I confess there's a good deal in that,' but cf. R 1.

2) If the pronoun refers to what is subordinate psychological predicate (§ 266, N 3), it gets secondary stress. Der Gaſt ſtand auf, wendete ſich gegen mich, und fing an zu reden 'The guest got up, turned toward me, and began to speak,' cf. 3 below. Ei, Max, wir haben heute was erfahren: die Miß Brown hat ſich in dich verliebt 'Aha! Max, we've found out something to-day: Miss Brown has fallen in love with you,' cf. 1 above. Cf. also § 263 N, 1*b*.

3) If the pronoun stands for the full predicate (the rest of the sentence being psychological subject), it has very heavy stress. Nein, ſo war die Geſchichte nicht; der Gaſt hat den Doktor gar nicht berückſichtigt, ſondern, indem er zu reden anfing, ſich gegen mich gewendet 'No, that isn't the way it was; the guest didn't pay any attention to the doctor, but, as he got up to speak, turned to *me*,' cf. 2 above. So with reflexives.

Remark 1. The phrases für ſich, für mich, &c., whose stress arose in this way, have acquired the meaning 'alone,' 'independent(ly)', and retain the stress on the pronoun. But cf. § 298, 1, end. A similar accentuation may be observed dialectically in other cases, for example: Haben Sie einen Bleiſtift bei ſich? in Hanover and in Austria.

Remark 2. The meaning of some prepositions is such that they are rarely used under more than one or two of the three conditions mentioned in § 298. Thus nebſt is equiv-

alent to und, and the following pronoun is psychological predicate (full or subordinate), and is stressed accordingly. When referring to time or succession (Du kommſt nach ihm 'You follow him') nach is generally psychological predicate and has heavier stress than when = 'for' (Er ſchickte nach ihm, 1 above, or Er ſchickte nach ihm, 2 above, 'He sent for him').

Remark 3. Preposition + personal or reflexive pronoun are particularly liable to the influence of the prevailing rhythm (§ 274). Thus, Du wirſt nicht viel aus ihm herausfriegen (You won't get much out of him) is ˘ / ˘ / ˘ ˘ / / °, but frequently becomes ˘ / ˘ / ˘ ° / / °.

Demonstrative and other Pronouns

299. 1) Pronouns other than personal or reflexive (§ 298) usually have more stress than a preceding preposition: Das iſt der Herr, mit dem ich ſprach. Er bringt 's zu etwas 'He will amount to something.' Mit dem Manne 'with *that* man' or mit dem Manne 'with that *man*'. (Not so the article: mit dem Manne.) Cf. also §§ 301, 302. But rhythm occasionally changes the normal stress, cf. §§ 302, 1 N, 298 R 3, 274 R 2.

2) A strong demonstrative denotes a psychological predicate, a weak demonstrative a psychological subject or a degenerate psychological predicate. In „Ich meine dēn Mann, dort," den is a strong demonstrative; it is a weak demonstrative in Siehſt du dĕn Mann dort? 'Do you see that man there?'; an article in Soll ich den (*dən or d·n*) Mann rufen? 'Shall I call the man?' The demonstrative before a relative stands for a coming psychological predicate and has heavy stress: Am meiſten werden die geliebt, welche etc.; but this stress is generally somewhat weakened if the relative immediately follows: Ich ſehe den, der das gethan hat. Even weak demonstratives are not as weakly stressed as relatives and personals, as may be seen by comparing der and das above.

Numerals

300. In general, chief stress does not fall on the numeral, except when the substantive modified by the numeral has already been mentioned or is conventional and therefore anticipated, cf. § 290, 3. 4. So, zehn Männer and fünf Frauen; but usually, um fünf Uhr and achtzehnhundertundneunzig, see § 343 N *c*. But ein 'one' is always stressed, while ein 'a, an' is not, § 188 R 2, § 263 N 3. Cf. also § 290, 4 end, 280, 2 end.

UNDEFINED PSYCHOLOGICAL SUBJECT OR PREDICATE

301. A psychological subject or predicate may be undefined (§§ 266 N 4, 272, 3) and therefore be represented by an indefinite or an interrogative (§ 292, 2). Undefined psychological predicates, unlike others (§ 279, 1), are in general but lightly stressed, § 269 end (but see also § 302, 3). I hear some one sing, but do not know who it is, and I say: Es singt jemand, or Wer singt?

Note 1. Of course, this explanation holds good only when jemand answers to a corresponding conception actually existing in the mind; which is often not the case. Thus, the group Es klingelt jemand, like Es klingelt, may be learned and used as a whole, the symbol for a psychological predicate (namely, the ringing of the door-bell as a signal that the door should be opened), of which the psychological subject was the sound of the bell, cf. § 270.

Note 2. If one of several words in a sentence is an indefinite word with an originally emphatic addition (to distinguish it from the simple indefinite which had come to be used largely as an interrogative), this may get the most stress, § 346: Er iſt irgendwo. But rhythm is powerful in controlling the stress of some of these words, cf. § 274.

Note 3. An undefined predicate, or rather the word standing for one, may become a full predicate and receive

chief stress. Thus, if I say, Es ſingt jemand and the listener understands the last word to be some proper name or other and asks, Wer ſingt? (§ 302, 3), I may answer, Es ſingt jemand, ich weiß nicht wer.

302. A sentence containing an interrogative word is really an assertion with one member (the psychological predicate or one of the psychological predicates) indefinitely expressed (that is, by an anæmic word, §§ 291, 292, 2) because it is still undefined in the mind of the speaker.

1) If the psychological subject is not yet present to the mind of the listener, the secondary stress that it would have according to § 279, 2, becomes the chief stress: Wo iſt die Mama? Cf. ſingt in § 301. The question has the same form and stress that an assertion would have that also had an anæmic word (for example, a personal, relative, or other pronoun) where the anæmic (interrogative) word stands in the question, cf. § 273, but also § 264 R.

Note. This generally leaves secondary stress on the interrogative word. Occasionally the rhythm (§ 277 *b*, § 278, I. & 1) shifts this to a neighboring preposition: Mit wem ſprach er? or Mit wem ſprach er? Cf. § 346, 3, also § 299, 1.

2) If the psychological subject is already present to the mind of the listener, the chief stress falls upon some other word (§ 306, 2): Wo iſt die Mama? '*Why*, where *is* Mamma?'

3) But when a person, having understood all but one point, inquires as to that, the interrogative word may become a full predicate (cf. § 301 N 3) and be heavily stressed: Wo iſt der Knabe? = '*Where* did you say the boy was?' Cf. § 252 *d* N.

4) This is also the case, of course, when the psychological subject is not expressed and the interrogative or indefinite word alone is used. „Wer?" „Niemand."

TRANSFERRENCE OF STRESS

303. When a sentence is repeated, the conditions are changed and, consequently, the stress. (1) If the listener has heard the psychological subject, this, if repeated, does not need even secondary stress (§ 279, 2). (2) So, too, a psychological predicate which has been heard by the listener is, when repeated, no longer the psychological predicate and therefore no longer strongly stressed; it becomes psychological subject to any new psychological predicate, which receives the heavy stress. (3) On the other hand, anything the listener did not understand (usually a psychological subject weakly stressed, imperfectly expressed, or vaguely referred to; but often a negative or a connective, § 294 *b*) becomes the psychological predicate and generally receives heavy stress. Cf. also N 3.

The following examples illustrate the principles referred to. 3 and 2: „Johann will fort." „Sie soll warten." „Nein, der Johann, hab' ich gesagt, will fort, nicht die Johanna" (cf. § 273 *c*). "John wants to go." "Let her wait a moment." "*John* wants to go, I said, not *Jane*." Wir sind nicht da gewesen (§ 292, 3 *c*), but repeated: Wir sind nicht da gewesen (= 'I did not say we had been there, but that we had *not* been there.') — 2: Das ist ein Irrtum; das ist ein großer Irrtum. Zwanzig, einundzwanzig, zweiundzwanzig, &c.

Note 1. What is stated above (§ 303, 2) is true whether the psychological predicate be repeated in the same words or in others. Thus, in the following, stressed Wasser is repeated in unstressed Pfütze, and the new psychological predicate Schlamm gets the stress: Du brauchst nur irgendwo ein Glas Wasser auszuschütten — in ein paar Stunden ist die Pfütze mit dem herrlichsten grünen Schlamm bedeckt 'You only need to pour out a glass of water, and in an hour or two the puddle will be covered with a beautiful green slime.' Cf. also Vieh in § 304 N 2.

Note 2. Persons of little intellectual development, failing to realize the mental state of the listener, often repeat an assertion or a question without change of words or stress. The heavy stress which they continue to throw on what has become psychological subject sounds comical to others.

Note 3. Sometimes transfer of stress on repetition is due to the fact that, in the first statement of the idea, the speaker allows rhythm or analogy to control his accentuation (see § 274 & § 290, 4) and, perceiving that he is not correctly understood, repeats with logical stress.

Note 4. When the psychological subject has had chief stress (§ 302, 1), and is repeated, though understood by the listener, its stress is weakened. If the interrogative word was not understood, or was misunderstood, it now gets chief stress (cf. § 301 N 3). Thus, Wo iſt es geweſen? 'Where was it?'; the interrogative being misunderstood, the question is repeated as Wo iſt es geweſen? and is equivalent to the statement: 'The word I said was "where" not "when",' see § 252 *d* N. Cf. also § 304 N 2.

DISPLACEMENT OF STRESS

304. Transfer of stress is so common an accompaniment of repetition that it has become characteristic of it, and a similar displacement of stress takes place even where the cause of transferrence (the desire to emphasize a new psychological predicate, § 303) is wanting. We feel that a sentence repeated with its original accentuation sounds tame, and we instinctively change it. The word upon which the stress now falls is likely to be one which might, under some circumstances, stand for a new psychological predicate, but if nothing of the kind offers itself, the stress may fall upon a totally insignificant word: normally, Ich weiß nicht, was ich anfangen ſoll 'I don't know what to do'; repeated, Ich weiß nicht, was ich anfangen ſoll 'I don't know *what* to do' or 'I don't know what *to* do.' Was ſoll ich denn ſagen? 'But what *shall* I say?' Das ſind' ich aber nicht hübſch von ihm, — nein, ich muß ſagen, ich ſind'

es nicht hübſch, 'I don't think that was very *nice* in him, — no, I must say, I *don't* think it was nice.' Displacement of stress occurs frequently in German in questions (cf. N 2), but elsewhere is not so common as in English. Thus, Johann iſt reich, or Iſt Johann reich? would usually be answered Ja, er iſt reich, rarely Ja, er iſt reich (as in English 'Yes, he *is* rich') but Ja, das iſt er, is common.

Note 1. Displacement of stress undoubtedly had its origin in transferrence of stress (§ 303), and it is sometimes difficult to tell whether a case of apparent transferrence may not, after all, be only a case of displacement. But this is certain: when the changed stress falls upon a word that cannot stand for a new psychological predicate, we have displacement, cf. *to*, ſoll, and *shall* above.

Note 2. When the psychological subject has had chief stress (§ 302, 1) and is repeated, though understood by the listener, its stress is weakened and displacement of stress takes place: Wo iſt denn die Katze? Then, after looking about in various places, Wo iſt denn das Vieh? (§ 303 N 1). Cf. also § 303 N 4.

305. 1) Displacement of stress is most common in expressions that are much used, that is, as it were, constantly repeated and hence readily anticipated. Normally (§§ 286, 289), Das iſt eine komiſche Geſchichte 'That's funny'; but with displaced stress: Das iſt aber eine komiſche Geſchichte '*That's* funny,' or 'Well, I declare, that *is* funny.'

2) Exclamations are subject to displacement; thus almost always: Ach, du lieber Gott; Ach, du meine Güte; often: Um alles in der Welt; um Gottes willen.*

3) One's pet expressions are likely to show displaced stress; so also what one's business requires him to repeat frequently, for example, street calls.

---

* Um Gottes Willen by § 289; um Gottes willen by § 290, 3 R; um Gottes willen by § 305. When slowly uttered, Gottes and willen may have equal stress, but Gottes a higher pitch.

4) In declaiming and in reading aloud, especially if familiar with the passage or subject, one is apt to displace stress, either consciously or unconsciously.

Note 1. Displaced stress may even become established as the usual stress, especially in the case of word stress (see §§ 341 N, 360, 6). Es ging nicht anders 'It couldn't be helped.' Iſt das nicht wahr?, or Iſt das nicht wahr?, is seldom changed, but the more usual Nicht wahr? has suffered displacement of stress so frequently that Nicht wahr? has, in Middle and Southern Germany, become the usual accentuation of the phrase.

Note 2. Displacement of stress together with variation of intonation sometimes betrays the mood of the speaker. Wie geſagt is the usual, Wie geſagt is calm and reflective, Wie geſagt, like und ſo weiter, betrays the speaker's consciousness of the lagging interest of the listener, see § 306. Guten Morgen! is the normal (§§ 286, 289) accentuation of the greeting. Guten Morgen! sometimes is very stiffly said, sometimes implies a willingness to stop and say more. Guten Morgen! (often with very high pitch on Guten and low on Morgen, § 251 *b*) betrays surprise or is said playfully or (with moderate pitch on Guten and less on Morgen, § 256 R) condescendingly. Observe also what is said in the foot-note on page 213.

306. 1) In transferrence of stress, the stress falls on a word which one desires to emphasize; in displacement of stress this is not the case. Still, displacement of stress is often effective in emphasizing the whole statement, and may be used for that purpose. The retention of the original accentuation in a repeated sentence often gives it a tame effect, while displacement of stress attracts attention and adds weight to the repetition.

2) Similarly, displacement of stress adds peculiar force to the first expression of an idea, if the form of expression used would be expected under the circumstances. Cf. the examples in § 305 and, for word-stress, such cases as nie'–mals' (§ 358 *a* end) *ne'–ver'*, voll'kom'men betrun'ken,

Proſ't' Neu'jahr'!, and, in an expostulating tone, Pa'pa' by a child that usually says Pa'pa'. See also § 341 N.

IMPULSIVE STRESS

307. Similar in effect to displaced stress and yet different from it by nature, is the excessive stress which a speaker puts upon a word, not because that word requires special stress, but because, at the moment of uttering it, he is particularly impressed by the importance of what he is saying or is intensely moved by his feelings. The stress in such cases is often very unusual and even quite absurd. Excitable people, especially children, are particularly inclined to use impulsive stress.

Chapter v

WORD-STRESS

308. Usually a word does not stand by itself, but is part of a sentence, § 270; it is therefore a mistake, in dealing with word-stress, to ignore the relation of a word to other words, § 274. Yet, in most words, whatever the connection in which they are used, the stress has come to be fixed on one syllable.

I. CHIEF STRESS

1) SIMPLE WORDS §§ 309—316

a) NATIVE WORDS

309. Simple native words have the stress upon the first,* the significant syllable; derivative and inflectional endings, like anæmic words (§ 291), are unstressed: Dieb, Diebe, Diebin, diebiſch, &c.

310. 1) In a few cases the accentuation ´ ´ ˘ has become ´ / ˘ or ˘ ´ ˘ according to § 277, 2: Forel'le, leben'dig, Holun'der, usually Wachol'der (but generally Mäß'hol'der),

---

* In the oldest Germanic, as in Indo-European speech, the accent was "free," that is, it was not bound by such a law; for example, the word for 'father' had the accent on the last syllable, as in Greek, while that for 'mother' had it on the first; and the preterit plural was not accented like the preterit singular. In Germanic, Italic, etc., a decrescendo stress was, however, early established, § 275, 1. In Latin the chief stress then shifted to a heavy penult or to the antepenult; Germanic speech is in the midst of a similar transition, § 275, 2, 3.

cf. § 330. In some of these cases foreign words may have exerted an influence, for example, Sardel'le and Libel'le on Forel'le. Cf. also § 312 R 2 end.

2) Luth'eriſch, or Luth'erſch, is now generally restricted to what pertains to Luther personally, while the confession of faith and what pertains to that is spoken of as luthe'riſch, many teachers and theologs to the contrary notwithstanding. The accentuation luthe'riſch accords with that of Greek-Latin words like home'riſch, hyſte'riſch, etc., cf. §§ 311, 2, 315, and may have been brought about in part through the influence of evange'liſch and katho'liſch. The same accentuation is sometimes employed, almost always in sport, in maleriſch hingegoſſen 'picturesquely recumbent', ſchwärmeriſch, etc.

3) The older stress may still be heard in various parts of Germany: Fo'rel'le in and west of Thuringia, Hol'un'der in Posen, Saxony, and Thuringia; and most people still say e'len'dig(lich'), A'mei'ſe, Klei'no'de (plural of Klei'nod'; but the Latinized Klei'no'dien or Klei'no'dien is common); in the case of Horniſſe usage wavers. Observe Mo'na'te (plural of Mo'nat'), not Mona'te.

311. 1) Native words provided with foreign endings are stressed like foreign words with the same endings (§ 273 *b*): Horniſt' like Choriſt' and Celliſt', burſchikōs' like *ἀνδρικῶς*, Glaſur' like Politur' and Appretur', Lappa'lien like Natura'lien, halbie'ren like addie'ren, Bäckerei' like Spezerei', Gro'bian like Pa'vian (or on the model of Dummerian < Low-German dummer Jan 'stupid Jack'), Lie'ferant' like Fa'brikant', and so Takelei', Takela'ge, &c. Similarly -enſ- combined with German endings: Jenen'ſer, etc., like Athenien'ſer, cf. Latin *Athenienses* 'Athenians.'

Remark. This may take chief stress from the first member of a compound noun: Buch'druck'erei', felt to be from Buch'druck'er (but Hand'druck'erei', a compound of Hand and

Druck'erei'), so buch'ſtabie'ren (by analogy to kopie'ren, interpunktie'ren, &c., for older būch'ſtā'ben).

2) German suffixes added to foreign stems remain unstressed. In most cases the stress is on the syllable before the suffix, inasmuch as it is there in the foreign word, or would usually be there if the corresponding foreign suffix had been used; so before =iſch for Latin *-icus*: gramma'tiſch, philolo'giſch, and so charakteriſ'tiſch, helle'niſch, nazare'niſch, Nazare'ner, Phariſä'er, Papa'chen (often even by those who say Pă'pa), natür'lich; so Latin-German =iker like *-icus*: Mathema'tiker, Phy'ſiker. But li'by(i)ſch < Li'byen. This does not apply to words that have become thoroughly Germanized, for example, or'dentlich < Orden, which was adopted in Old-High-German times.

3) Some words of more or less German form have foreign stress because they are popular perversions or partial translations of foreign words, or, though true German words, have passed into a foreign language and been re-adopted, but retain some trace of their foreign sojourn. Thus, Kar'funkel < Latin *carbunculus*, Ap'felſī'ne < old French *pomme de Sine*, Hel'lebar'de French *hallebarde* < MHG *helmbarte*. Similarly, Latinized Old-German names like Burgun'de, Lan'gobar'de, Ru'nigun'de, Mathil'de, Walpur'gis(nacht), &c.; also Melin'de, Roſalin'de, &c.

4) South-German dialectic names like Reuchlin, Böcklin, Wölflin, usually have weakly stressed =lĭn in the South and Midland, but strongly stressed =līn in the North, as though they were foreign words, § 314 =īn. So Hermelīn' like Palatīn' 'tippet'. For South-German Ru'nigun'd(e), Ma'thil'd(e), &c., cf. § 313 end.

b) ADOPTED WORDS

312. From the earliest days foreign words have been adopted into German speech. Not a few of these have

become so thoroughly Germanized that they can hardly be recognized as foreign. Many of them, however, and particularly those of recent adoption, usually retain their foreign accentuation together with more or less of their foreign form. It is a marked peculiarity of foreign words that they often have the stress on some syllable other than the first, § 315. This is usually the last syllable in words of French or Latin origin; for the unstressed final syllables of most Latin words that were adopted by the Germans fell away (or were dropped by analogy), thus making the stressed syllables final; and for like reasons most words adopted from the French came to be stressed on the final syllable.

Remark 1. Many learned words show a difference of stress according as they were taken directly from the Latin or found their way through the French, cf. §§ 314 -or -it, 315 R.

Remark 2. The stress of words from one foreign language may influence that of words from another. So some English words are stressed in German as if they were taken from the French or the Latin: Draina'ge, Flanell', Dentiſt', &c., sometimes Dollār', To-aſt'. Similarly Bal'laſt, a Low-German compound, is often stressed Ballaſt'; and cf. § 311, 4. Halun'ke (< Bohemian *hol'omek*) probably acquired its German form and stress under the influence of Spelun'ke (< the Latin).

Remark 3. There are in Modern German many words beginning with unstressed ka: most of them are of foreign, some of unknown origin: Kabu'ſe, Kajü'te, Kalen'der, Kal-dau'nen, kalfa'tern, Kamēl', Kamīn', Kanīn'chen, Kapel'le, Kartof'fel, Karbāt'ſche, Kaſta'nie, Kattūn', and many more. It may be regarded, therefore, as a rule, with but few exceptions, that initial ka- in adopted words is not stressed.

313. (*a*) In German the foreign stress is retained in adopted words much oftener than in English. This is largely due to the fact that the English adopted a very large body of foreign words long before the Germans did, and the process of assimilation is, therefore, farther ad-

vanced: Alphabēt′, Diner *dinē′*, brillant *briljant′*, analōg′, delikāt′, Elefant′, En′thuſiaſt′, even′tuell′, Fami′lie, Philoſōph′, Fontä′ne, Schokola′de, Kaka′o; Athēn′, Florenz′, Parīs′, Tirōl′, Ita′lien. (*b*) As in English, some words still vacillate between the foreign and the native stress: Mămā, Păpā, Tabak, Paletot, the names Johann, Eugen, &c., cf. R *b*. Kămerād and Sălāt generally have foreign stress, and Kănapee, Kănevas, &c., native, see § 365, 2 R. So Au′guſt 'Augustus', but Auguſ′te 'Augusta'; in the name of the month the foreign stress, once lost, has been restored, Auguſt′. Ma′rie and So′phie for Marie′ or Mari′e, &c. (see § 314 -ie) are common among the middle and lower classes in the Midland and the South, and in South Germany Emilie *'ĕm′ī′lĭ*, Lu′iſ(e), Ma′thild(e), Ku′nigund′(e), &c., are common. Some of these were originally Germanic names, § 311, 3. (*c*) The South favors the decrescendo stress more than the North, both in native words (§§ 311, 4, 330, 4) and in foreign: Palaſt, Trottoir, Bonbon, Bureau, Mama, Papa, &c. Similarly in names: An′drees, Ma′ria, &c., cf. above. But the North-German (or foreign) stress is often taught in Southern schools.

Remarks. (*a*) Those who regularly say Pa′pa, Ma′ma, often unconsciously shift the stress to the last syllable, as shown in § 364, 1 *a* & *b*, or displace it, § 306, 2 end. For Papa′chen, &c., see § 311, 2.

(*b*) The chief stress on the final syllable of an adopted word may sometimes change places with the initial secondary stress, according to § 278, I. 1: Ge′neral′ and Ge′neral′ von Molt′ke but Gen′eral Molt′ke. Paſ′tor or Paſtor′ but usually Paſ′tor Götz′e, § 314 -or 1. Portion′ but often Eine Por′tion Kaf′fee. Many who say Johann′, &c. (§ 313 *b*) when the first name only is used, say Jo′hann Brau′ne, &c., cf. § 366 N 1 R.

(*c*) Inversely, some South-West Germans, who generally stress Christian names on the first syllable (*c* above), shift the stress when the Christian name is added to the family name (§ 277 *b* R): Run′ner Andrees′, Bel′licam Mathild′, &c.

(*d*) See § 316, also § 332.

314. Here may be given those endings that usually do or do not have the stress, as indicated: they include accidental endings as well as true suffixes and are arranged alphabetically, for the most part according to the vowel. For words with German suffixes added to foreign stems see § 311, 2.

-ā'de: Ballade, Barrikade, Charade, Schokolade, Limonade.

-ā'ge (pronounced *āʒə*): Bagage, Courage, Etage, Passage, Plantage, and even English Drainage *drēnāʒə* (§ 312 R 2).

-āl': Arsenal, General (§ 313 R *b*), horizontal (§ 316 end), kolonial, Lineal, lokal, Ritual, universal; but Kăr'neval', Tin'tal, and the names of animals Ga'vial, Nar'wal, Schăt'al.

-all': Kristall, Metall, Krawall, Vasall; but not the two originally Germanic words Mar'schall' (but see § 364, 1), Se'neschall'.

-an. (1) Words with Latin *-ān(e)us*, etc., have *ān'*: human, Kastellan, spontan, Vulkan (even a few with Latin *-ănus*, *-ănum*: Organ, Ocean, but see also 2 below); similarly, many from Low Latin or Romance: Kaplan, Sakristan, Sopran, Marzipan, Ortan (ultimately an Indian word). (2) Some words that have long been in the language are now generally stressed on the first syllable (§ 312): Baldrian, Enzian, Pavian, Pelikan, Thymian, and usually Oceān (Pä'ān, Ti'tăn or Titān' are from Latin *-an*), and the French Char'latăn'. (3) Words from the Turkish, Arabic, Persian, &c., usually stress the first syllable in German: Diwăn, Dragomăn, Kaftăn, Korăn (or -rān'), Saffian (or -ān'), Safrăn, Sătăn, Talismăn. For Levia'thăn see Word-List, for Altan, § 315.

-and cf. **-ant.**

-ā'ne: Chikane, Karawane, Membran(e), Partisane.

-ä'ne: Domäne, Fontäne, Migräne.

=ā'ner: Indianer, Puritaner, Republikaner.

=ant': Adjutant, Diamant, elegant, Konsonant, Pedant (so too Examinand, Konfirmand, and Gouvernan'te, Varian'te, etc.); but De'mant, Do'rant, Leut'nant, and often De'chant.

=anz': Allianz, Eleganz, Konsonanz, Substanz; but Fir'lefanz', Po'panz.

=āph': Biograph, Photograph; but Hebrew Se'raph.

=ār'. The a is stressed if stressed in Latin (or in Late Latin): Exemplar', Inventar', Kommentar'; and even Barbar'; but Nek'tar. Altar wavers, see § 315. For Januar, &c., see § 316. Observe Slavic Hospodar' and Hungarian Husar', but Turkish Ka'viar, Indian Ja'guar.

=ār': familiär, populär, Sekretär.

=arch': Monarch, Patriarch.

=ast': Enthusiast, Kontrast, Palast, also Pal'ast, especially in South Germany. Bal'last, really a Low-German compound, is often stressed on the last syllable, § 312 R 2.

=āt'. Stressed if stressed in Latin: Demokrat', Duplikat', Konsulat', Pirat'· not in the verbal forms Pe'reăt, Va'kăt, Vi'văt.

=āt': Diät, Humanität, Universität.

=é or **=ee'**: Attaché, Coupé, Armee, Chaussee, Idee, Komitee; but Kan'apee'.

=ei': Litanei, Spezerei, and the numerous German words with this ending or its extensions, **=elei'**, **=erei'**, § 311, 1; but often Lo'relei', which is not a derivative in **=ei**.

=ēk' and **=e'ke**: Apotheke, Bibliothek, Kopeke, Scharteke.

=ekt': Architekt, Dialekt, Insekt, Objekt (§ 316 end), perfekt', but in grammar Perfekt'(um) or Per'fekt(um), see § 316.

=ell': Duell, Kastell, originell, reell, and even English Flanell (§ 312 R 2); so too Hotel.

=el'le: Citadelle, Kapelle, Novelle.

-ent': Accent, Agent, intelligent, Student; but Bar'chent has become Germanized. For Occident see § 316.

-enz': Differenz, Frequenz, Sentenz, Sequenz (but often Se'quenz in whist, as in English). Quinteſſenz now generally has chief stress on the first syllable and secondary on the last.

-eſ'ſe: Adreſſe, Baroneſſe, Intereſſe.

-ēt': Alphabet, Komet, Prophet; but De'bĕt, and Taf'fĕt or Taft. For Budget see the Word-List.

-et(t)': Billet, Duett, Lazarett.

-et'te: Etikette, Kokette, Toilette.

-eur': Gouverneur, Liqueur, Malheur.

-gramm': Monogramm, Programm. For Hektogramm, Kilogramm, &c., see § 316.

-ie: Words in -ie — cf. §§ 201 N 3, 202 — (1) often have Latin stress and the -ie = *ĭə*, *jə* or j*ə*: Beſ'tie, Fami'lie, Reli'quie, &c. (only in the plural: Fe'rien, Natura'lien, etc.); some abstracts, Glo'rie, Gra'zie, &c.; names of plants, Aka'zie, Aza'lie, &c.; proper names, Emi'lie, Roſa'lie, &c.; (2) but more frequently they have French stress (especially many abstracts and names of sciences) and the -ie is pronounced *ī'*: Anarchie', Me'lancholie', Genie', Garantie', Ze'remonie', pl. -i'en (or Latin -ō'nie, pl. -ō'nien), Philologie', Gallerie', Kopie', Marie', Sophie', or with Latin stress Mari'e, Sophi'e (see also § 313 end). Observe Sel'lerie'.

-ien is preceded by the stress when from Latin *-ia*: Ita'lien, Spa'nien, so in the plural: Stu'dien, Kapita'lien; also in a few that do not have *-ia* in Latin: Fe'rien, Ge'nien, &c. For Partien, etc., cf. -ie above.

-ier is usually stressed: (1) pronounced *īr* (§ 202): Barbier, Juwelier, Klavier, Manier, Offizier, Papier, &c.; (2) pronounced *jē'* (§ 202): Atelier, Banquier, Portier, Rentier. But (pronounced j·*r*, *j·r*, or *ĭ·r*, § 201 N 3 and

p. 128 N 5): Flibuſ'tier, Ma'gier, Malva'ſier (also -*zīr'*), Sau'rier and names of peoples like Spa'nier, Bel'gier.

=ie'ren: disputieren, parlieren, turnieren. Most of the verbs ending in =ieren were not adopted from the French, but formed in German (from foreign or native stems) in imitation of such as were adopted, or as the equivalents of foreign verbs with various endings: ſtolzieren, ſkalpieren, ſtrapazieren.

=ik. Words in =ĭk — cf. § 201 N 6 — (1) often have Latin stress: Arſe'nik, Chro'nik, Me'trik, Poe'tik, Rheto'rik, Tech'nik, and now generally Grammăt'ik; (2) sometimes, variable stress: Arithme'tik or =tik', Metaphy'ſik or =ſik', still, usually Mathematik'; (3) but only French stress in Republik', Moſaik' (but moſa'iſch), Politik' (but Polĭ'tiker), Katholik' (but katho'liſch), and in most dissyllables: Fabrik', Kritik', &c. — Mu'ſik and Phy'ſik, still heard in South Germany, are antiquated. Observe Qua'druplik', Quĭn'tuplik', § 316.

=iker (§ 311, 2) is preceded by the stress: Kri'tiker, Mu'ſiker, Phy'ſiker, &c., in spite of Kritik', &c., § 315 R.

=il': civil, Exil, ſubtil.

=in': Kamin, Medizin, especially chemicals: Karmin, Chinin, Terpentin, &c.; and Slavic names: Berlin, Stettin, &c. Baldachin, Bombaſin, Paladin or Palatin 'paladin' or 'knight' (but Palatin' 'palatine' or 'fur tippet') stress the first or the last syllable, Harlekĭn only the first, Delphin usually the last. Cf. § 311, 4.

=ī'ne: Couſine, Gardine, Maſchine.

=ī'ner: Alexandriner, Kapuziner.

=iōn': Auktion, Religion, Viſion.

=is'mus: Deſpotismus, Egoismus, Katholizismus.

=iſt': Egoiſt, Juriſt, Sophiſt; but Bo'fiſt. Most words in =iſt were not adopted from French and (Low) Latin, but have been formed in German from foreign or native

(§ 311, 1) stems: Belletriſt, Flötiſt, Germaniſt. For Dentiſt cf. § 312 R 2.

-iſ'ter: Miniſter, Regiſter.

-it' (§ 201 N 6): Akonit, Appetit, Jeſuit, Profit. But usually San'ſtrĭt, and the verbal forms De'ficĭt, Fa'cĭt, Pro'fĭt.

-īv': maſſiv, Motiv, naiv, poſitiv, relativ, aktiv, Nominativ, etc., but see § 316.

-īz': Hoſpiz, Juſtiz.

-ō'de: Epiſode, Kommode, marode.

-ō'g(e): Dialog, Theolog(e) Synagoge. But Or'lŏg' in Orlog-ſchiff < the Dutch.

-oir' (§ 213 *c*): Boudoir, Memoir, Trottoir — also Trot'toir in South Germany.

-ōl': frivol, Monopol, Symbol. But Al'kohŏl.

-ōm': Aſtronom, Idiom, Symptom.

-ōn': Baron, Kanton, Perſon, and cf. -ion. But Bă'rytŏn and Poſ'till(i)ōn or Poſtill(i)ōn' (or -*ŏn*).

-ŏn. (1) In French words, § 207 N, -on is pronounced *ŏn* and is usually stressed: Balkon, Bonbon (also Bon'bon'), Salon, but Pa'villon or -on'.

(2) in Greek words and some others, -on is pronounced *ŏn* and is usually not stressed: Akroſ'tichon, Bi'ſon, Ko'lon and Semiko'lon, Lex'ikon, Pan'theon.

-ō'ne: Amazone, Kanone, Melone.

-ōp': Heliotrop, Mikroſkop, Miſanthrop.

-or. (1) Most words ending in -or are directly from the Latin and, retaining the full Latin form, do not stress the final syllable: Dok'tor, Impera'tor, Profeſ'ſor (§ 366, N 1, R), Kre'ditor, Se'nior, Supe'rior; but some, through the influence of related forms (see § 315) and of the Romance words in 2 below, have come to stress the last syllable, so Humor, Rumor, often Autor, sometimes Faktor, not so often Caſtor. For Paſtor see also § 313 R *b*.

(2) Words in =or from the Romance languages (which present the Latin accusative case, cf. § 315) have the stress on the last syllable: Kontor, Major, Matador, Tenor, Treſor; but Kor'ridor usually has the Germanic stress, § 312.

=ōs' (1) in adjectives <the Latin (*-ōsus*): famos, grandios, furios.

=ŏs (2) is not stressed in nouns <the Greek (-os): Chaos, Epos, Pathos.

=ōs': graziös, nervös, religiös.

=ō'ſe: Aprikoſe, Diagnoſe, Matroſe.

=ott': Bankrott, bigott, Kompott.

(1) =ūr': (<Latin *-ūra*): Kultur, Litteratur, Natur.

(2) =ŭr: is not stressed: Augur, Purpur, but Azūr' or A'zŭr.

=ü're: Broſchüre, Lektüre, Tournüre.

=ūt': abſolut, Inſtitut, Rekrut.

315. In some languages the stress of related words or of different forms of the same word varies according to the number and the quantity of the syllables in a word. This peculiarity is often followed or imitated by the Germans in words adopted from those languages. Latin words in *-or* stress the *o* in the plural, so German Dok'tor but Dokto'ren, Se'nior but Senio'ren; similarly Seniorāt', At'las Atlan'ten, Dä'mon Dämo'nen =iſch, Kli'ma klima'tiſch, Bal'ſam balſa'miſch, He'ros hero'iſch, Ä'ther äthe'riſch, Cho'lera Chole'riker chole'riſch, Nu'merus nume'riſch. Also A'raber (but cf. Word-List) Ara'berin ara'biſch, Sa'tan and Sul'tan (but cf. § 364, 1*a*) have plural –'tane or –ta'ne, so Sul'tanin or Sulta'nin. Observe Al'tar or Altar', usually Altan', Au'tor or Autor', like the plural, cf. § 314 =or.

Remark. Katholik' katho'liſch, Phyſik' Phy'ſiker, &c., are due to a vacillation between French and Latin stress, cf. =ik in § 314, § 311, 2, also § 312 R 1.

316. In words which are often contrasted, the stress may be changed according to § 273 R: Nŏ'minatīv' Gĕ'nitīv' Dā'tīv' Ac'cuſatīv' or Accu'ſatīv' (§ 366 N 2), Sub'ſtantīv' Ad jektīv', In'dikatīv' In'finitīv', Paſ'ſīv' Ak'tīv', Sin'gulār' Plŭ'rāl', Fĕ'mini'num Mas'kuli'num, Sub'trahend' Mi'nuend', Hek'togramm' Ki'logramm', O'rient' Oc'cident', Ar'tillerie' In'fanterie', Jă'nuār' Fĕ'bruār', &c., § 144 N 3 *b*. But all these, especially when not contrasted, also have their natural stress: No'minatīv', Plurāl', Ar'tillerie', &c.; and some such words rarely have the changed stress unless a contrast is in mind, for example, horizontal vertikal, Subjekt Objekt. Semiko'lon rarely transfers the stress to the first member, as is now regularly done in English. Cf. also § 313 R *b*.

For German derivatives of adopted words see § 311, 2.

2) COMPOSITION §§ 317–332

a) *NATIVE WORDS*

GENERAL PRINCIPLE

317. It is a general rule for the stress of compound words, that compound nouns (that is, substantives and adjectives) have the chief stress on the first member, while compound verbs have it on the second. In each member, that syllable generally has the stress which would be stressed in the simple word, § 362, but cf. §§ 363–4. The secondary stress is generally stronger in compounds than in derivatives, § 263, N 1.

Land'=volk', Le'bens=wei'ſe, lie'be=voll', be=völ'kern, miß'ling'en, Miß'geſtalt', Miß'bil'dung, Durch'gang', Cervelāt'wurſt', Jubilä'ums=fei'er, Armee'=corpŏ' (§ 332, N 1). Compare Ant'wort', Bei'ſpiel', and Ur'=teil' with ent=ſprech'en, be=zah'len, er=tei'len, § 321. For the separable compound verbs see §§ 341, 318 *e*.

318. (*a*) The difference in the stress of compound nouns and compound verbs is due chiefly to the fact that in most compound nouns it is the first member that has chief significance, and in most verbs, the second member. (*b*) When the idea expressed by the first member of a compound noun is no longer important, the first member is generally omitted (compare Hausſchlüſſel with Schlüſſel). When convention requires the retention of the first member after the full need of it is past, the stress tends to shift to the following member, cf. § 331, 2*a*, and some other cases in §§ 321 &c. (*c*) Nouns that are often used as the second member of a compound, are apt to get a less definite meaning and to fall into the category of suffixes (§ 309); thus Weiſe in ausnahmsweiſe, Teil in Viertel, also the German equivalents of *like* and *doom* in freundlich 'friendly', König tum 'kingdom', etc. (*d*) The elements (be- ent- er- ge- ver- zer-) that originally combined with verbs, were few in number and denoted only position, or direction, etc. (§ 292, 3); in composition their force became more and more indefinite and consequently their stress, like that of anæmic words, suffixes, and inflectional endings (§ 309), became weaker until it quite disappeared. See § 321. (*e*) The number of these verbs was later increased by the fact that the prefix miß-, the predicate adjective voll, and certain adverbs — durch, hinter, über, um, unter, wider and wieder — which were often used with verbs, § 341, in some cases underwent a similar weakening of force and stress until they were all regarded and treated as prefixes (§ 341, 1-5): durch'dring'en 'penetrate' transitive, ü'berſetz'en 'translate', wie'derho'len 'repeat', voll'bring'en 'complete', miß'han'deln 'abuse', miß'ra'ten 'miscarry'.

Note 1. — On the principle of § 273 R, some compounds with miß- (miß'han'deln 'do amiss', miß'ra'ten 'advise wrongly', &c.) have come to stress this element and, like

separable compound verbs, admit zu and ge- between the two elements: miß'zuhan'deln, miß'gera'ten; but the miß- is not separated (except in sport) in the simple tenses: miß'han'delte, not handelte miß; and in some of these verbs the simple tenses are seldom or never used. Also before unstressed particles, the stress falls on miß-: zu miß'verſtehn' or miß'-zuverſtehn', miß'beha'gen, &c. Thus some confusion arose, and in other verbs (for example, mißhandeln 'abuse') miß- often gets the stress in the infinitive and always in the perfect participle if the unstressed ge- is used, as it often is (miß'han'deln or miß'han'deln, pp. miß'han'delt or gemiß'-han'delt).

Note 2.—In empö'ren em- is for an, the verb (and consequently its stress) being influenced by the related conglomerate, empor', § 353. For will'kom'men, will'fah'ren, froh'lock'en, see § 319 1 R.

Derivatives from Compounds

319. Derivatives keep the stress of their primitives; thus: —

1) Verbs derived from compound nouns keep the stress on the first member: ant'wor'ten (< Ant'wort' not < ant+worten), ur'tei'len < Ur'teil', hei'rā'ten < Hei'rāt', vergewal'-tigen < Gewalt', früh'ſtück'en < Früh'ſtück', wet'terleuch'ten < MHG weterleich.

Remarks. — (*a*) The verb froh'lock'en (by popular etymology < MHG *vrōleichen < *vrōleich 'song of rejoicing', § 128) now usually conforms to § 317: that is, froh'lock'en. (*b*) Following the analogy of verbs like frohlocken and weiſ-ſagen (apparently < weiſe + ſagen, but really < OHG wīzzago 'prophet'), some verbs that we should expect to find under § 341, usually have the stress on the first member, but are inseparable: lieb'äu'geln -ſo'ſen &c. In lob'prei'ſen -ſing'en &c., some shift chief stress to the second syllable, following the analogy of the verbs in § 317. (*c*) The word willkommen was originally an adjective, but early came to be regarded as a perfect participle and was later stressed will'kom'men by analogy to voll'kom'men (2 below, and § 318 *e*). The verb will'fah'ren arose by analogy to MHG willekürn (< willekür Willkür), but it now often follows the analogy of the verbs in § 317, that is, will'fah'ren.

2) Nouns derived from compound verbs keep the stress on the second member: Ertrag′ < ertrag′en, Beklei′dung <beklei′den, bekömm′lich <bekom′men, Vollen′der & Vollen′dung < vollen′den, Hin′terlaſ′ſenſchaft′ <hin′terlaſ′ſen, so the participial adjective vollkom′men (for voll′kom′men see § 306, 2 end, and for willkom′men R *c* above). But observe the adjectives in § 327, and see § 311, 1 R.

Remarks. — (*a*) Still, related verb and noun may unite independently with the same element, especially with one of those which form the separable compound verbs (§ 318 *e*): Durch′ſtich′ durch′ſtech′en, Un′terhänd′ler unter′han′deln, Un′terſchied′ unter′ſchei′den. (*b*) And later, following the analogy of these, some real derivatives (for example, Un′terricht′ < un′terrich′ten, Miß′fal′len < miß′fal′len) made the same distinction between verb and noun. Similarly, some people now say Ent′gelt′ for Entgelt′ < entgel′ten. (*c*) It is often hard to tell whether a case belongs under *a* or *b*.

EXCEPTIONS §§ 320–331

320. The exceptions to the law stated in § 317 are due to various influences, the chief of which are (*a*) change in the value of words and parts of words, and the consequent shift of significance (§ 267); (*b*) mental association (§ 273), that is, analogy and contrast; and (*c*) rhythm (§§ 274 &c.).

(*a*) The Verbal Prefixes

321. It will be observed that the first elements of the compound nouns Ur′teil′, Ant′wort′, Bei′ſpiel′, &c., have been weakened through lack of stress (§§ 295, 113) in the verbs er=teilen, ent=ſprechen, be=zahlen, &c. (*a*) But most nouns assumed* the weak unstressed prefixes of the verbs; more-

* This may have been due in part to the influence of verbs related to the nouns, but can also have been caused by the weakening of the prefix even in nouns when a strongly stressed syllable like un′= pre-

over, many nouns have been derived from compound verbs and naturally retain their form and stress, § 319. (*b*) We thus come to have the important exception to the law stated in § 317 :—

Nouns (both substantives and adjectives) compounded with the verbal prefixes be- emp- ent- er- ge- ver- zer- have chief stress on the second member. Thus, Verluſt' ver-lie'ren, Gebot' gebie'ten, Beginn', Entlaſ'ſung, erſicht'lich, &c.

(*b*) Adjectives and Adverbs Compounded with un-

322. 1) Words compounded with un- regularly have the chief stress upon this member; but in adjectives and adverbs there is a considerable tendency to shift* the stress to the second member. In this matter the language is in a state of transition, usage varying in different districts and among different people. In fact, the same word is often stressed differently by the same person according to the mood he is in (§§ 306, 325), or according as he has or has not in mind the corresponding positive, § 326. The stress may also vary (for example, un'mittelbar unmittelbar') according to the position of the word, § 278, I. *a*. The tendency to shift the stress is most pronounced in the North (§ 275, 3 *b*), some speakers regularly shifting the stress in all verbal adjectives. In time German will probably yield entirely to this tendency, just as English did long ago.

2) Various influences tend to promote this shift (§ 264 R), and those words that are affected by two or more of these

---

ceded, ' ' ' becoming ' ˘ ' (§§ 363, 364), or when heavier syllables followed, as was almost always the case; § 277, 2.

* It must not be understood that the chief stress in any way really passes from one syllable to another: what is meant is that the chief stress is weakened, and the secondary stress, already resting on some other syllable, becomes strengthened so that it is now the chief stress.

influences more readily yield than those that are subject to but one of them.

(*a*) In many cases words are not properly compounds of un= and an adjective; for example, such adjectives as aus=ſtehlich, abänderlich and ſäglich hardly exist except as they are deduced from unausſtehlich, &c., and when they are used it is almost always with a negative. In fact, unausſtehlich, unſäglich, and the like are derived directly from verbs, the unstressed un= taking the place of the weak negative (§ 292, 3 *c*) before the verb. They found companionship among the like-stressed verbal derivatives: erſchreck'lich, entſetz'lich, &c. In such cases it is hardly proper to speak of a shift of stress, for, in all probability, the words were never stressed in any other way (except for §§ 325, 326, 1, end) in most communities where the stress is now on the second member. In parts of the South the stress falls on un= by analogy to the original compounds with un=, § 322, 1.

(*b*) In many real compounds the idea of the whole word, and not that of the first member, has come to be the one usually uppermost in the mind of the speaker (§ 279), and the un= therefore fares like other negatives, § 292, 3 *c*. Moreover, the influence of the words in *a* above must have been considerable, § 273. But see also § 326.

(*c*) The rhythm of the language, or rather the difficulty of maintaining a series of declining stresses, favored the change, see § 324 and § 363.

323. The following are some of the most common of the words coming under § 322, 2 *a* & *b*; they are, for the most part, verbals ending in =lich and =bar, less frequently in =ſam, =ig, =haft.

unabän'derlich	unbegreif'lich	unergründ'lich
unaufhör'lich	unbeſchreib'lich	unermeß'lich
unausſprech'lich	unentbehr'lich	unermüd'lich
unausſteh'lich	unentgelt'lich	unerträg'lich

unverbeſ'ſerlich	unſäg'lich	unhör'bar
unvermeid'lich	unſterb'lich	unläug'bar
unwiederbring'lich	unwillkür'lich	unnenn'bar
unwiderſteh'lich	unabſeh'bar	unrett'bar
undenk'lich	unaufhalt'bar	unſchätz'bar
unend'lich	unbeſtreit'bar	unaufhalt'ſam
unglaub'lich	unerſetz'bar	unſtrei'tig
unmerk'lich	unwiderleg'bar	unzäh'lig
unmög'lich	undenk'bar	unzwei'felhaft

Note. In words like unergründlich, undenklich, unheilbar, unſtreitig, chief stress falls upon a syllable that would have the strongest secondary stress if un- had the chief. But in words like unabänderlich, unausſtehlich, unaufhaltbar, there has been a weakening of the stress on ab- aus- auf- &c. to the advantage of the following heavy syllable, §§ 277, 278; but this does not always take place in undar'ſtell'bar' or un'dar'ſtell'bar.

324. It has been stated (§ 322 *c*), that the rhythm of the language favors the change. (*a*) This is particularly true when the word is in the predicate position or final (see § 277 & R) and, of course, those words are most affected that very frequently occur in this position. Of the verbals, cf. Er or Es iſt unbeſchreiblich, unerträglich, unvermeidlich, unmöglich, &c. Frequent use in the predicate position and as isolated words in answers and the like is perhaps the only reason (besides displacement, § 325) for the shift in such participles and common adjectives and adverbs as unbedingt, unerhört, unerlebt, ungefähr, ungemein, unlängſt, unmittelbar' (also un'längſt, un'mittelbar); in ungeheu'er the change is made easier by the unstressed -er, cf. *b*, end. The tendency to shift is, of course, promoted by a preceding emphatic ſehr, ganz, or total', § 364, 1 *b*. (*b*) Some speakers shift the stress in the predicate, but stress un- when the word is used attributively (Das Zim'mer iſt' unheiz'bar, but Ein un'heiz'ba'res Zim'mer), §§ 277 *b*, 278, 1 *a*; or, if they shift the stress when the word is used attributively, it is

only before a word beginning with an unstressed syllable, and hence especially in adverbs before participles beginning with ge- ent- ver- &c. Thus some say un'gemein' ſchön' but un'gemein' bekannt', un'gern' gethan' (cf. also N 2), &c.

Note 1. Participles and common adjectives and adverbs generally give chief stress to the un- (un'bekannt', un'erquickt', un'gemeſſen, un'an'genehm', &c.); for unbedingt, &c., cf. *a* above. This is also true of the perfect participles of separable compound verbs; but some speakers shift the stress, usually, however, to the adverb, not to the verbal stem: un'an'gefoch'ten, un'auf'gefor'dert, &c., or un'an'gefoch'ten, un'auf'gefor'dert, and usually un'vorher'geſeh'en.

Note 2. Words that usually do not shift may do so at times after a very heavy stress: ſehr un'vorſich'tig, ſehr ungern' (cf. also § 324 end), &c.

325. Displacement of stress (§§ 304, 306) is, of course, totally different from shift of stress (§ 322 ff), yet it helps to keep up a vacillation of usage in the pronunciation of many of these words. Those that are often uttered with emphasis, especially when more or less conventional (see § 306, 2), are often heard with displaced stress: compare Er iſt un'ausſteh'lich! with Ich kann ihn nicht aus'ſteh'en! § 341 N. In a community in which the shifted stress has become established (for example, unerhört'), displacement brings the stress upon un- (un'erhört); but where un'erhört is the rule, unerhört' may be due to displacement, § 327 R *b*.

326. 1) If there is a corresponding positive adjective in very common use, chief stress usually falls on the negative prefix (§ 273 R): un'gebräuchlich, un'gehorſam, un'aufmerkſam, un'gläubig, un'ſchädlich, un'nötig (but see § 364, 1 *b*), un'bequem, un'beliebt. And, of course, any one of the words that usually have shifted stress may occasionally stress un- according to § 273 R.

2) But there are also other adjectives that usually stress the un-, § 322: (*a*) although the form without un- is not in

common use, for example, un'päß'lich, and (*b*) if in common use, even if it does not mean the opposite of the form in un-, for example, un'behülflich.

(*c*) Other Compound Adjectives

327. The stress has also been shifted (§ 322 & ft) in a considerable number of other compound adjectives and adjectives derived from compounds, particularly when they end in -lich, less often in -ig: For the explanation see § 322, 2. As in the case of adjectives compounded with un- (§ 322, 1), the tendency to shift the stress to the second member is most pronounced in the North, § 275, 3 *b*.

1) -lich: Almost always ab'ſcheu'lich, all'täg'lich, beſt'mög'lich, au'ßeror'dentlich 'exceptional' or 'remarkable' (but au'ßeror'dentlicher Profeſ'ſor 'associate professor', in contrast to ordentlicher Profeſſor, § 273 R), vor'treff'lich, ab'ſon'derlich, haupt'ſäch'lich, very often au'genblick'lich, au'genſchein'lich, wahr'ſchein'lich, ü'berſchweng'lich; often aus'drück'lich, ab'ſicht'lich, aus'führ'lich, ei'gentüm'lich (some speakers distinguish between ei'gentüm'lich 'characteristic' and ei'gentüm'lich 'strange'), vor'züg'lich (but ab'- and an'züg'lich); less often ur'ſprüng'lich, hand'greif'lich, vor'nehm'lich, hoch'fürſt'lich, will'kür'lich; but an'fäng'lich, nach'weis'lich, zu'gäng'lich, &c.

2) -ig: Always drei'fal'tig when equivalent to dreieinig (§§ 334, 344) 'triune', not always when meaning 'threefold'; generally barm'her'zig, wahr'haf'tig, leib'haf'tig, teil'haf'tig; often glück'ſe'lig; less often hoch'ſe'lig, hold'ſe'lig (always leut'ſe'lig), frei'wil'lig, in'brün'ſtig, hoch'wür'dig, groß'mäch'tig (but groß'mü'tig), not'wen'dig (see § 364, 1 *b*), sometimes arm'ſe'lig, auf'rich'tig, zu'künf'tig; but ab'häng'ig, gut'her'zig, hoch'her'zig, nach'läſ'ſig, &c. Observe all'mäch'tig, in which all- only intensifies the meaning of mächtig, but all'ſei'tig, in which all- is essential to the meaning.

3) Regularly all'wiſ'ſend, often aus'gezeich'net (but the perfect participle aus'gezeich'net), aus'neh'mend, leib'ei'gen. But an'hal'tend, ein'neh'mend, ar'beit'ſam' or ar'beit'ſam' (see § 365, 5*e*); and many still say fort'wäh'rend, of'fenbar', etc., at least when the word is not before a pause, § 277 R & 2, or very emphatic, § 325. For voll'kom'men cf. § 319, 2, for will'kom'men cf. § 319, 1 R *c*.

Remarks. (*a*) In almost every one of the words in 1, 2, 3, the stress may occasionally be put on the first member in accordance with § 273 R or §§ 303, 304, by persons who usually put it on the second, cf. voll'kom'men, § 306, 2 end. (*b*) On the other hand, other compounds than those above may occasionally stress the second member because of transfer (§ 303) or displacement of stress (§§ 304, 306, 2): Es iſt fa'bel—haft', was das mir hilft. Ein ab'—gefeim'ter Schurke! Cf. § 325.

328. The stress in alt'in'diſch, alt'ſächſ'iſch, alt'nor'diſch, alt'eng'liſch, &c., is due to the fact that speakers oftener compare one of these languages with others than the early stage with later stages of the same language. In speaking of the native language and of later stages of other languages, the first member receives the chief stress, alt'hoch'deutſch' or alt'hoch'deutſch', mit'teleng'liſch, &c. Should, however, altengliſch, for example, be contrasted with mittelengliſch or neuengliſch, it is generally stressed alt'eng'liſch. Like alt'ſächſ'iſch we have alt'fränk'iſch 'old Frankish', but alt'fränk'iſch 'old-fashioned', the original meaning of -fränkiſch being quite lost.

329. In a number of compound adjectives, the first member of which is intended to express a high degree of the quality, an emphatic secondary stress is often placed upon the second member. This emphatic stress frequently equals, however, or even surpasses the stress on the first member,* especially if the idea of the second member has

* This accentuation is, however, not universal, many placing only the usual secondary stress on the second member. Those who stress the

not already been expressed or suggested: stockblind, stocktaub, totkrank, steinreich, steinalt, uralt, urplötzlich, blutjung, blutarm, mäuschenstill, mausetot, blitzdumm, dorfdumm, erzdumm, wildfremd, grundbrav, -ehrlich, -falsch, spottbillig, kerzengrade, kohlschwarz, schneeweiß, feuerrot, eiskalt, wunderschön, herzlieb, herz(aller)liebst, mut'ersee'lenallein', welt'bekannt', but often welt'bekannt' and always stadt'bekannt', the first member having its original meaning. For ur'sprüng'lich etc., see § 327. Cf. § 289, 2 N end, and § 330, 2.

Note. In such emphatic compounds, the chief stress is usually heavier than the chief stress in an ordinary compound, § 263 end. Moreover, one or both of the members are generally somewhat prolonged and they are often separated by a slight pause. Thus, even if the first stress be the heavier, these emphatic compounds are distinguished from such regular compounds as stein'reich' 'rich in rock', blut'arm' 'anæmic', zie'gelrot' 'brick-red', etc.

(*d*) Substantives

330. 1) In substantives, the principle stated in § 277, 2 seldom prevails over the traditional stress except in multi-compounds; in these the chief stress frequently shifts (§ 322 ff) to the member before the last, especially if the force of the first member has become vague or unknown or is but a general intensive. Usually: Fron'leich'nam, Kar'frei'tag, Grün'don'nerstag, Asch'ermitt'woch, O'stermōn'tag, Pfingst'sonn'tag and Palm'sonn'tag, etc., All'ge'genwart', All'weis'heit'; often: O'berforst'meis'ter -post'direktion', Ge'neräl'post'mei'ster, § 313 R *b*, or Gen'eräl'post'mei'ster, § 364, 1, Reäl'schulo'berleh'rer (or with equal stress on Real- and ober-, § 263 N *b*), sometimes Berg'- Feld'haupt'mann, Vi'cefeld'we'bel, Land'gerichts'direk'tor or Land'gerichts'direk'tor (even with the same meaning), O'bermil'itär'exam'inations'kom'mis-

---

second member most heavily usually do so *only in the predicate*, § 277 R. Cf. also § 275, 3 *b*.

ſion'. Wie'deran'nah'me, Wie'deraus'fuhr', etc., belong here or follow the analogy of the verbs in § 341, 2.

Note. In Jah'res= Mo'nats= Ta'geſan'fang', =an'bruch' and =en'de =ab'ſchluß' =ſchluß', Son'nenauf'gang' =un'tergang', etc., the shift is due to both § 277, 2 and § 273 R; but some of the words may originally have been conglomerates (§ 333). The words are also heard with stress on the first member.

2) There are not many substantives like the adjectives in § 329. In offensive epithets Erz= usually has secondary stress: Erz'betrü'ger =gau'ner =gro'bian =ſchelm'; but in other compounds it receives the chief stress Erz'en'gel, Erz'biſch'of, logically Erz'her'zog, phonetically Erz'herzog', § 364, 1 *a*, or Erz'her'zog', § 364, 2. In Herzliebſte(r) and Heine's Herzliebchen, the chief stress usually falls on the second member. Urenkel, Urgroßmutter (§ 364, 1 *a*), etc., generally have the chief stress on the first member, but some speakers shift the stress in some of these words according to § 364, 2: Ur'ahn'herr', Ur'en'kelin' (except when comparing such words as Enkelin and Urenkelin, § 273 R).

3) Substantives compounded with Un= retain the stress on the first member. In nearly every case the corresponding simple word is in common use. Even where the meaning has changed, the stress is usually retained on the prefix; cf. Un'menſch', Un'geheu'er 'monster' (but un'geheu'er 'very large', § 324, *a*). Observe, however, derivatives (§ 319) like Un'mög'lichkeit' < un'mög'lich (§ 323), except by those who say un'mög'lich. For un'gefähr' or un'gefähr' as a substantive, cf. § 344 R.

4) The North-German Bür'germeiſ'ter, Rats'kel'ler (at Bremen, but Blei'kel'ler), Kä'ſebut'terbrot', Mari'enkirch' and Pe'trikirch' (in Rostock), are due to the North-German tendency to shift the stress to the second member, § 290, 4. Usage is divided as to Neujahr; the habit of placing the chief stress on the second member doubtless arose through

the use of the word as a salutation, § 277, 2 & 1 R and § 306, 2. Cf. also § 359 R. Ober'lieu'tenant (see § 332 N 1) is a true compound; Ober'ſtlieu'tenant is a conglomerate with the modifier following the modified word (§ 287). Wal'hal'la and Wal'kü're (taken in modern times from the Norse) have a stress at variance with the old Germanic, perhaps through the influence of Wal'pur'gis, with its Latin accentuation (§ 311, 3), and of adopted words in -üre, § 314; but observe the native Wal'ſtatt'. Cf. also § 310, 1.

Remark. Those English-speaking persons who are in the habit of employing crescendo stress in English compound nouns (especially at the end of a clause, § 275, 3 *c*) will need to guard against importing this stress into German; thus, Deutſch war mein Haupt'fach' (not Haupt'fach') 'German was my major study.'

Geographical Names

331. The shifting of the chief stress to the second member of a compound is particularly common in geographical names, even when these are used as personal names.

Note. It is not practicable here to attempt to make a distinction between compounds proper and conglomerates; most of the words in question are conglomerates. Some of them — for example, Siebenbürgen, Wenigenjena, Königsbrunnen, etc. — may have sentence-stress retained in conglomerates, § 335. But many such conglomerates came to have the stress of real compounds, § 345, for example, Altenburg, Hohenſtein, &c.; and then some shifted the stress according to 1 below.

1) (*a*) In a compound geographical name, the meaning of the elements, or the application of the meaning, is generally not obvious. One or both of the elements may be foreign and not understood. If the form is familiar, its application may be fanciful or no longer appropriate, and even if it is appropriate, this may be evident only to a person on the spot and perhaps there only at certain seasons.

It thus comes about that a geographical name is remembered as a whole and is therefore particularly susceptible to the influence of rhythm, or physical conditions, § 274 R 1 & § 275, 2, 3, cf. also § 322, 2 *b*. (*b*) That is, unless there is some reason for emphasizing the first member, the chief stress may be expected to shift to the second member. Shifting is most common in compounds in -born -bronn -brück(en) -brunn(en) -förde -fürth -grätz -hausen -münde -reuth -roda -rode -walde -weiler -werder -werth -wörth -zell(e): Wal'tershau'sen, Pa'derborn', Heil'bronn', Kö'nigsbrun'nen, Os'nabrück', Saar'-Zwei'brück'en, Ec'kernför'de, Bai'reuth', Lich'tenwal'de, Do'nauwörth', Mari'enwer'der, Swi'nemün'de, Ap'penzell', Frie'drichro'da. Cf. also Bre'merha'ven, Gastein', Hor'nisgrin'de, Kai'serslau'tern, Kötsch'enbro'da, Mari'aspring', Il'senburg', Kö'nigskron' (palace in Charlottenburg), and (according to Minor) Wil'denbruch', Her'zogenbusch', Kö'nigshorst', Weis'sensee'.

> Note. Rhythm and ease of utterance (§§ 274 &c.) do not always favor the shift of stress to the second member; they may even, under certain circumstances, favor the restoration of the stress to the first member, though it usually falls on the second. Thus Ho'henlo'he, auf dem Ho'henzol'lern, &c. (*c* below); but Fürst' Ho'henlo'he, sometimes Burg' Ho'henzol'lern, the stress on Fürst and Burg being weaker than that on the name, according to § 287, while the stress on Hohen- is strengthened according to § 278. O'sterwal'de, § 277 *b* & 2, but (in speaking of the same place) O'sterwald' bei El'ze, the stress on -wald being weakened before Elze, and that on Oster- strengthened, § 278.

2) In relation to a given geographical name, people are necessarily divided into two groups of nearly equal importance: first those living at or near the place, second those living some distance from it and usually constituting the larger part of the population of the country. If diversity of usage arises between these two classes (see below), it may continue or one usage may more or less completely

prevail over the other. In the case of a large city, whose name is in the mouths of people in all parts of the country, any local tendency to shift is usually overwhelmed by the general usage, thus even natives of the place say Hei'delberg' only occasionally. On the other hand, if the local class extends over a large area, for example, a province or the nation itself, its usage will generally prevail, cf. *d* below. The local usage will ordinarily prevail also in the case of a small place, which is seldom mentioned except by people who live in or near it or who have visited there and have thus come under the influence of the local usage; for examples, see 1 *b*. Cf. also § 274 R 1.

(*a*) The development of diversity of usage near and away from a place may be illustrated by a concrete case. A man living at Osnabrück or in its neighborhood hears this name oftener than all other names of towns ending in -brück; hence the word is there readily understood even when the chief stress has been removed from the first member to the last (§ 331, 1), and it will rarely be necessary to bring the stress back to the first member. But distant places having the same ending are distinguished by being stressed on the first member; and this is just the way that people distant from Osnabrück treat that name. That is, in general, a place-name ending in a word that is a common ending in such names, is likely to be stressed on the second member in and about the place, and on the first member away from there. This is particularly true of small towns (cf. 2 above): most Germans say Bück'eburg' and Ra'deberg', but the natives and their neighbors say Bück'eburg', Ra'deberg', &c.

(*b*) On the other hand, if the names of a number of places in the same neighborhood end alike, it will generally (see, however, note below) be necessary to stress the first member in order to make sure which of several possible

places is meant; for this reason the many Thuringian names in =leben are even there generally stressed on the first member, and the natives of Stralsund stress the name of their city on the first syllable to distinguish the word from the names of the various sounds on the Baltic. But as the name Stralsund alone is generally known in Germany, it is stressed on the second syllable by most Germans, § 331, 1 *b*. So, too, Greifswald is stressed Greifs'wald' at home in distinction from the names of local woods, but as there are comparatively few names of large towns with the ending =wald, the name is generally stressed Greifs'wald' (§ 331, 1 *b*) in other parts of Germany. See also Baden Baden in the Word-List.

> Note. But even in the same neighborhood place-names that have the same ending may receive the chief stress on the second member. This is generally true of names whose second member contains more than one syllable, the first of which is long (for example, =förde, =hauſen, =roda, =walde, =weiler, =werder), and whose first member contains more than one syllable, so that its stressed syllable is separated from the stressed syllable of the second member by at least one weaker syllable. In these cases the physical tendency to shift the stress is particularly strong (§ 277, 2, & cf. § 310) and the secondary stress on the first member is heavy enough (§ 263, N 1 *b*) to make that member distinct. Similarly, such names as Je'na and We'nigenje'na are in themselves so different that there is generally no need of stressing them differently.

(*c*) Moreover, people of the locality often find it necessary to distinguish between such names as O'berlo'quitz and Un'terlo'quitz, Groß'he'ringen and Klein'he'ringen, and the like, as between Alt'ſtadt' and Neu'ſtadt', Oſt'preu'ßen and Weſt'preu'ßen, Nord'deutſch'land and Süd'deutſch'land. But at a distance from one of these localities, the first member is less distinctive than the second, for there are many places beginning with Ober=, Unter=, Nieder=, Groß=, Oſt=,

Nord-, &c. Moreover, while the names of the pair are known and used locally, often only one of the two is known in the country at large (this is true, for example, of the many words in Hohen-, the little town below the castle being comparatively insignificant). Hence distinctness as well as rhythm demand that the stress be placed on the second member. Unless a contrast is intended, we usually hear: Groß'britan'nien, Klein'a'sien, Nord'ame'rika, Oſt'in'-dien, Oſt'frieß'land, O'beram'mergau', Neu'bran'denburg', Ho'henlo'he, -twiel', &c. (but Ho'henſtein', for Ho'henſtein' would suggest hohen Stein), Alt'brei'ſach', Alt'grie'chenland'.

(*d*) The local usage has become more or less general (see § 331, 2) in the case of Un'terwal'den, Nie'derwald', die Nie'derlan'de, Nord'deutſch'land', O'berdeutſch'land', Oſt'- and Weſt'preu'ßen. Similarly, Oſtgoten, Oſtfranken, Rheinfranken, &c. generally have the chief stress on the first member; for when that member is expressed there is usually a contrast in mind.

b) *ADOPTED WORDS*

332. Most foreign compound words appear to Germans as simple words and are so stressed. A few, whose composition is more or less evident, are treated like native compound words.

a) Compounds in in- (like those in un-, § 322), when used attributively, frequently, but not always, have the chief stress on the first member, provided the second is familiar as an independent word, § 273 R: often in'direkt', in'korrekt', in'human', il'legal', il'liberal'; not so often il'legi-tim', in'konſequent', In'konſequenz', im'perſonell', in'kompetent', In'kompetenz', In'toleranz', &c. In the predicate the stress is usually on the second member, § 278 and *a*, also § 324 *b*.

b) Premier'lieut'enant Sekon'delieut'enant, Con'treab'miral' Vi'ceab'miral', Sub'pri'or, and others beginning like these.

So the artificial formations Bi'quadrat', Ko'ſi'nus, Ko'ſekan'te, &c.; also sometimes Ther'mome'ter, Ki'logramm', &c., Am'phi=thea'ter, oftener Amphi'thea'ter, &c. Cf. § 273 R.

Note 1. Some of these are not foreign compounds, but German compounds of foreign elements (Armee'corps', Kurial'ſtil', &c.) or of native and foreign elements (O'ber=lieut'enant, Real'ſchu'le, Vi'cekö'nig, &c.).

Note 2. Though common words like Ther'mome'ter, Ba'rome'ter, &c., in this way often get the chief stress on the first syllable, Dia'meter and the metrical terms Tetra'meter, Hexa'meter, &c., are usually stressed like their Latin-Greek originals.

3) CONGLOMERATION §§ 333–366

333. 1) The difference between a genuine compound and a conglomeration of words often juxtaposed, is generally easily seen; but this is not always the case, for example, when the first element has the form of a genitive: Ta'ges=an'fang, Mo'natsab'ſchluß (§ 330, 1 N). Many old compounds are historically conglomerates, but were so early felt to be single words that they have the old decrescendo stress, § 275, 1: Mittag, Weihnachten, &c. Cf. also § 345. Some words have but recently passed from one category to the other: so der geheime Rat > der Geheim'rat'; others are still unsettled: die Lang'ewei'le and die Lang'weil', Krau'ſemin'ze, perhaps more generally Krau'ſemin'ze, ſich wieder verſöhnen (§ 292, 3 c), and ſich wie'derverſöh'nen.

2) There are derivatives whose stress betrays bases more or less loosely conglomerate: thus tag'täg'lich formed from Tag für Tag on the analogy of täglich from Tag; alt'teſtament'=lich < das alte Teſtament (but the South-German fondness for decrescendo stress often produces the accentuation alt'teſtament'lich, § 349 N), cf. § 344 end; ü'bernach'ten < über Nacht; Dreieinigkeit and dreieinig 'triune' formed directly from drei and ein; cf. also § 343 end.

(1) NOUNS AND VERBS

(*a*) Conglomerates

334. Conglomerates generally keep the old sentence-stress, §§ 279 &c., but see § 333 and § 345.

Adjective and Substantive

335. According to § 289: die Lang'ewei'le < die lange Weile, so der Ar'meſün'der, ein Ar'merſün'der 'convicted criminal', der Ar'merit'ter 'French toast' — still often written der arme Sünder, &c. —, der Ho'heprie'ſter, al'lerhand' (but §§ 278, 1 *a*, 345, 2), al'lerlei' 'of all sorts' (§§ 278, 1 *a*, 345, 2), ei'nerlei' 'immaterial' (but ei'nerlei' 'of one kind'), mei'nesglei'chen (§ 345, 2), desglei'chen, Al'lerſee'len 'All Souls', Al'lerhei'ligen 'All Saints', drei'hun'dert, &c. Geographical names (§ 331 N): Vier'zehnhei'ligen, Lan'genſal'za, Hanno'ver (= hohen Ufer), Ho'henzol'lern, We'nigenje'na (see § 331, *b* N end), &c. With following modifier (§ 287): Va'terun'ſer (like Latin Pa'ternoſ'ter) 'Lord's prayer', ein Jahr'tau'ſend, Jahr'hun'dert, &c. (compare ein Thaler achtzig 'a round eighty dollars'). For conglomerates containing a numeral, see also § 343 N.

Note 1. According to § 290, 3 N, we should expect die Lange Straße, or Lan'ge(n)ſtra'ße, etc.; but the tendency to shift the chief stress to the second member (§ 290, 4) is so strong in parts of North Germany that in Bremen and other North-German cities, such accentuations as Lang'enſtra'ße, O'bernſtra'ße, Fau'lenſtra'ße, are very common in the case of well-known streets, etc., § 274 R 1.

Note 2. South-German all'weil' 'all the time' is due to § 290, 3, Middle-German al'lewei'le 'now', 'presently', to § 289.

Adverb of Degree with Adjective

336. According to § 289: allein', all'gemein', hoch'ehr'würdig 'right reverend'. For hellgelb, dunkelrot, vielbewundert, &c., see § 289 N.

Note. — (*a*) Most adjectives beginning with halb- have the chief stress on the first member, partly because they are regarded as regular compounds (§ 345), partly in contrast to the forms without halb (§ 273 R): halb'ſchü'rig, halb'rund', &c. When the union is still slight, the chief stress falls on the second member, and the words are still often written as two words: halb'nackt', halb'tot', or halb nackt, &c. (*b*) The adjective halb'jäh'rig is a derivative (§ 319) of the compound substantive Halb'jahr' 'half-year' ('half a year' is expressed by ein halbes Jahr) and seems to have been the model (if so, halb'mo'natlich -wöch'entlich are due to § 277, 2) for the stress of halb'tä'gig, -ſtünd'lich, &c., which, being from einen halben Tag, &c., we should expect to be stressed halb'tä'gig, &c., compare alt'teſtament'lich, § 333, 2, and *c* below. (*c*) The adjectives vier'telſtünd'lich -jähr'ig -jähr'lich &c. are derivatives (§ 344) of the conglomerates Vier'teljahr' &c.

Substantive or Adjective with Dependent Word

337. According to § 289: Mo'natsab'ſchluß, &c., but see §§ 333, 330, 1 N; al'lerliebſt', menſch'enmög'lich, &c. It is not easy to distinguish between some of these and the words in § 329.

Preposition with Dependent Word

338. According to §§ 291, 292, 3: zu'frie'den, vor'han'den. At first, zufrieden and vorhanden were used only in the predicate, like our "at peace" and "on hand"; in time, following the analogy of perfect particles in -en, they were also used before nouns.

Substantive followed by Adverbial Preposition

339. According to § 297: mein Le'benlang', eine Zeit'lang'.

Phrases

340. Vergiß'meinnicht', Le'behoch' 'a cheer', Le'bewohl' or Le'bewohl' (§ 344 R), das Ein'maleins' 'the multiplication table', Jeläng'erjelie'ber 'honey-suckle'.

The Infinitive and the Participles of Separable Compound Verbs

341. According to § 282 (but see also § 285, 4): ab'=zie'hen, ab'zie'hend, ab'gezo'gen, auf'zuſetz'en, ſtatt'fin'den, haus'hal'ten, ein'marſchie'ren, &c., durch'dring'en 'crowd through' intransitive, ü'berſetz'en (hinü'ber= herü'berſetz'en are more common) 'set over', voll'bring'en 'get full' transitive, ſich wie'derſe'hen, &c. Similarly when used as nouns: Nim'=merwie'derſe'hen, das Aus'einan'derreiß'en, &c.

> Note. Occasionally displacement of stress may be observed: normally aus'ſte'hen, but in the common expression, Ich kann ihn nicht ausſtehen, one often says aus'ſteh'en when speaking emphatically (§§ 325, 306, 2); normally an'ſe'hen, ab'war'ten, but often an'ſe'hen, ab'war'ten, in Bremen in expressions like Ich kann es nicht anſehen, for which Middle and South Germans say mitan'ſehen or erſehen.

1) In some cases the meaning of the conglomerate has so changed (frequently becoming figurative) that the original idea of the first element is nearly or quite gone; it loses its stress and is regarded as an inseparable prefix, see § 318*e* and the Word-List, and compare voll'bring'en with voll'bring'en. Cf. also § 283, 1.

> Remark. — The learner who meets one of these verbs for the first time in the infinitive mood* should consider whether the two elements would be separated in the simple tenses. To determine this he will find the following a good general test: (1) When the verb is transitive, if the object may be made the object of the simple verb and the adverb be regarded as a sort of factitive predicate modifying the object; or (2) When the verb is intransitive, if the adverb may be put in the predicate modifying the subject; — in both of these cases the elements are separable and the adverb has the stress, otherwise not: es durch'zie'hen = 'pull it through', that is, 'pull it until it is through'; but es durch'zie'hen 'interweave or permeate it (with something)'. *Exceptions:*

---

* In the perfect participle the use or omission of ge= will show whether the compound is separable or not.

durch'mach'en 'live through' or 'finish', durch'ſe'hen 'go over, examine' (4 below), um'brin'gen 'murder', um'kom'men 'perish', un'terbrin'gen 'find a place for'. For hin'terlaſ'ſen, &c., see 5 below. In ſich überſchlagen 'stumble' über is generally unstressed and inseparable. So is unter in unterbleiben =drücken =handeln (but usually Un'terhänd'ler, see § 319, 2 R) =liegen =werfen (and un'terwür'fig, § 344 end), and wider in widerſetzen.

2) In some cases wieder, while retaining the idea of 'back' or 'again', has little more force than 'as we know has happened before' or 'as we know it was before', and therefore generally loses its stress, § 292, 3 *c*. (*a*) Regularly so before another adverb. Conglomeration then takes place in derivatives and often in the infinitive (especially if used as a noun), less often in the perfect participle: Wiederher'ſtellung wiederher'ſtellbar =en, wiederab'drucken, wiederheraus'bekommen, wiedergut'werden, Wiederleben'digmachung, wiederaus'graben generally wieder ausgraben and always grub es wieder aus. (*b*) Before an unstressed prefix wieder receives the chief stress in conglomeration (§ 345): wie'derverein'igen, Wie'derverein'igung, but wieder vereinigen and vereinigten ſich wieder 'they became reconciled' (vereinigten ſich wieder would imply that they had become estranged and made up once before). (*c*) In short, in conglomerates wieder generally has the chief stress before an unstressed prefix, but not before a stressed one, which accords with the principle laid down in § 278, I: ſie werden ſich wie'derverſöh'nen (this differs from wieder verſöhnen 'become reconciled a second time' in having no pause between =der and ver= and only weak stress on verſöhnen) but wie'deraus'ſöhnen (it does not have the chief stress in either case when not conglomerated: ſie haben ſich wieder verſöhnt' and wieder aus'geſöhnt, cf. *a*) and (§ 344) die Wie'derverſöh'nung but die Wie'deraus'ſöhnung.

3) But generally when wieder means 'back', 'in return', etc., or an emphatic 'again' (which latter is seldom its meaning in conglomeration), § 294, it retains the chief stress and enters into conglomeration in the infinitive, the perfect participle, and derivatives: Wie'derbekeh'rung, wie'derbezah'len, wie'derbege'hen, wie'derſe'hen, so wie'dergeſe'hen, but ſahen ſich wieder. Usage varies as to wie'derhal'len or wie'derhal'len, and so with wiederſcheinen, wiederſpiegeln.

4) Durch has the chief stress when it means 'thoroughly', 'from beginning to end': durch'back'en, durch'le'ſen, 'read through to the end,' but durch'le'ſen 'peruse', still durch'ſe'hen, § 341, 1 R, and durch'ſtrei'chen or durch'ſtrei'chen 'cross out'.

5) (*a*) The adverb hinter was in general usage displaced by zurück; in conglomeration with verbs it therefore fell into the category of an unstressed prefix (cf. 1 above), even in a few cases where the idea of behind is more or less clear; for example, hin'terlaſ'ſen, -blei'ben, -le'gen. (*b*) Of late, a new stressed adverb hinter has arisen out of the slang phrase hinter die Binde (literally 'behind one's neckcloth') for hinunter: hin'tergie'ßen, -ſchluck'en, -ſtopf'en, &c.

6) Um- 'anew', 'differently', has chief stress: ſich um'klei'den 'change one's clothes', ein Bild um'hän'gen 'hang a picture in a different place or position' (but ein Bild um'hän'gen 'festoon a picture').

Proper Names

342. According to § 287: Frie'drich-Wer'derſches Gymna-ſium, die Jo'hann-Mey'er-Straße, Hans'narr' 'fop' (still often written Hans Narr like Hans Liederlich 'Jack Rake'), Hans-wurſt' (but see § 345, end) 'merry andrew'.

Nouns Juxtaposed

343. According to §§ 280, 2, 278, I, 1: A'BC', ſch *'ĕs'-tse-hā'*, ß *'ĕs'tsĕt'* (but ß *tē'tsĕt'* in contrast to ß, § 273 R), Schwarz'-weiß'rot', deutſch'-franzö'ſiſch, Ham'burg-ameri'kaniſch, kai'ſerlich-kö'niglich, Süd'weſt', Süd'ſüd'weſt'; partitive appositives like Vier'teljahr' -mei'le (not so the real compounds Vier'tel-grö'ße, -ſtrich', &c. and Halb'jahr', cf. § 336 N); and names like Heſ'ſen-Naſ'ſau, Schles'wig-Hol'ſtein (for Baden-Baden see Word-List), Men'delsſohn-Barthol'dy, Schmidt'-Wei'ßen-fels, Kir'chentel'linsfurt' (<Kirchheim + Tellinsfurt). Similarly the imitative verb rin'kin'ken 'clash' and the reiterative adjectives (or adverbs) klein'win'zig, tag'täg'lich (from Tag für Tag), for which see § 333, 2.

Note. (*a*) In conglomerates in which the first member is a numeral (whether the case comes under § 335 or § 343), we expect the stress to fall on the second member (§§ 292, 3 *c*, 280, 2); and this stress generally maintains itself before a pause (§ 277, R): drei'undzwan'zig, drei'hun'dert, drei'erlei'. (*b*) But before another stressed word, the heavier stress often

shifts to the first member according to § 278, 1 *a*: drei'erlei Sach'en, vier'tau'send Män'ner, regularly so in some words that are almost always used attributively: zwei'blätt'rig, drei'tä'gig, &c. (*c*) Before smaller numbers, =tauſend= and higher numbers usually have heavier stress than falls on the word preceding them; =hundert= vacillates, but has weaker stress in dates, where it is so common (§ 300), and heavier stress in such cases as fünftauſendachthundertundneunzig in contrast to the preceding =tauſend, § 273 R. (*d*) =zehn has practically become a suffix (like =zig and =tel) and never has more than secondary stress, while English *-teen* generally has the chief stress before a pause, as German =zwanzig, &c. have, cf. *a* above.

(*b*) Derivatives and Compounds of Conglomerates

344. Like conglomerates themselves (§ 334), derivatives and compounds of conglomerates generally keep the sentence-stress: Al'lerwelts'bür'ger 'cosmopolitan', Alt'(er)wei'ber=ſom'mer 'gossamer', 'Indian summer', Drei'kö'nigsfeſt' 'Epiphany', Gut'nacht'gruß' (< gŭt'nacht'! or gute Nacht!), Mut'tergot'tesbild' (< Mutter Gottes), Sau'regur'kenzeit', das Empōr' or die Empo're '(church) gallery' (< empōr', see § 353), der Vor'mittag' (< vor'mittag' < vor Mittag, see §§ 345, 2, end, 364, 1), ü'bernach'ten (< über Nacht), and, by analogy, ü'berwin'tern, durch'ſom'mern, &c. Derivatives in =bar, =er, =ung, =ig, =lich, &c.: Au'ßeracht'laſ'ſung, Wie'derher'=ſtel'lung =bar =er, ſüd'weſt'lich, ho'heprie'ſterlich', vier'teljäh'rig (§ 336, N *c*), der'ar'tig, da'ma'lig, and conglomerate derivatives (§ 333, 2) like all'täg'lich, alt'jüng'ferlich', alt'teſta=ment'lich, drei'ei'nig, &c. The adjectives zufrie'den and vorhan'den were originally predicate phrases (§ 338). As derivatives may also be classed un'terwür'fig, Zuhil'fenah'me, &c. Cf. also § 333, 2.

Remark. Occasionally a conglomerate shows more tendency to assume (§ 345) the stress of regular compounds when used as a noun: lebe wohl but einem Le'bewohl' or

Le'bewohl' ſagen, voraus' but im voraus' or im vor'aus', von un'gefähr' (§ 353) or von un'gefähr'. For vorlieb, see § 353. Cf. also § 341, 2 *a*, *b*.

(*c*) Conglomerates as Compounds

345. 1) Sometimes a word that is clearly a conglomerate follows, in the matter of stress, the analogy of genuine compounds, §§ 333, 331 N. This is particularly true, as in English, in the case of names: der Herr'gott' 'the Lord' (but Herr Gott! 'Lord God!'), Herr'gottsſchäf'chen 'ladybug', Al'tenburg', Ho'henſtein' (§ 331 N), Trau'gott', Le'berecht', Lie'beskind', Krumm'bein', Pack'an' 'large dog' (< pack an! 'take hold'), Sauf'aus' 'drunkard' (< ſauf aus! 'drink her down!'), Spring'insfeld' 'harum-scarum' (< ſpring ins Feld 'run wild'), Thu'nichtgut' 'good-for-nothing', Oh'nefleiß' in Hans Ohnefleiß 'lazybones', Reiß'aus' especially in Reiß'aus' (or Reiß'aus') nehmen 'take to one's heels' (< reiſ' aus! 'travel!' slang for 'get out!', but now generally confounded with aus'reiß'en), Kehr'aus', Rühr'michnichtan', Stell'dichein'; Mit'ternacht', Mit'tag', Nach'mittag', Nach'tiſch', and sometimes Le'bewohl' (§ 344 R), Hans'wurſt'.

2) Of course, conglomerates are subject to transferrence of stress (§ 303) and to displacement of stress (§ 304, &c.): mei'nesglei'chen for mei'nesglei'chen, al'lerhand' and al'lerlei' for al'lerhand' and al'lerlei', § 335, all'gemein' for all'gemein', § 336, &c.; and these forms may become the usual ones, as, for example, in parts of South Germany. Vor'mittag', Nach'mittag', etc. (cf. 1 end) probably arose in this way. Cf. § 360, 2, also § 341 N.

(2) PRONOUNS

346. Compound pronouns are conglomerates (§ 333) or derivatives from conglomerates, and generally show the old

sentence-stress (§§ 279 &c.). Sentence-rhythm, however, often causes shift of chief stress.

1) dieſer, welcher, ſolcher, jeder, keiner, &c., have become so compact that their composition may be ignored so far as stress is concerned.

2) einan'der (compare § 352), derſel'be or derſel'bige (so hoch'derſel'be 'his majesty'), dēr'je'nige < derjene (compare English 'that there', Greek ὅδε), je'dermann', je'mand', nie'mand', et'lich, je'glich, ſämt'lich, et'was' (in North and Middle Germany sometimes etwaſ', § 274, 2), et'wa'ig or et'wa'ig, je'dwe'der or je'dwe'der.

3) waſ' für', waſ' für' ein or waſ' für' ein (§ 302, 1 N), ein' paar', ein' we'nig, gar' nichts', gar' nie'mand', &c., are still written as separate words. The last has generally become *gār'nĭmănt'* in Middle and South Germany, § 364 *b*. (The adverb gar nirgends wavers like adjectives in § 329.)

4) ſelbſt is stressed in compound adjectives and adverbs: ſelbſt're'dend, ſelbſt'los', &c., ſelbſt'geback'en 'home-made'; da'ſelbſt', wo'ſelbſt'. But ſelb'an'der, ſelb'dritt', &c. For mei'nesglei'chen see § 335; for (um) mei'netwil'len (< um meinen Willen), der'entwe'gen, wes'halb', wes'we'gen, &c., cf. § 357.

(3) PARTICLES

347. Compound particles are (1) conglomerates or (2) derivatives of compounds or conglomerates. A few, like ſchlechtweg, ſchnurſtracks, ſpornſtreichs, are formed and stressed like the adjectives in § 329. Very few particles are true compounds: un'längſt' or un'längſt' (for ungefähr see § 353), cf. also adjectives used as adverbs, especially §§ 322 &c.

Remark. It is not possible to draw a line that will accurately separate derivatives of conglomerates from conglomerates used specifically as particles.

(*a*) Conglomerates §§ 348–360

348. Conglomerates generally retain the sentence-stress, §§ 279 &c.

Adjective and Substantive

349. According to § 289: glück'licher- thö'richterwei'ſe etc., ei'niger- fol'gender- gewiſ'ſerma'ßen, al'ler- neu'erdings' (but al'lerdings', neu'erdings', according to § 360, 6), al'len- des'- je'denfalls', mei'ſtenteils', gera'den- kei'neswegs', einſt'wei'len, al'leror'ten, al'le- je'derzeit', der- desglei'chen, al'le- je'des- ein'-* zwei'mal', etc. Still such words may have the chief stress on the first member, according to § 360, 8, and they frequently have it there, according to § 360, 1. But dieweil and derweilen never stress the first member, it being the article (§ 292, 1*a*); on the other hand, the stress on the first member (§ 360, 1) has become fixed in andermal, andern- gleichfalls, derzeit, and is very common in others, for example, jedesmal, jedenfalls, etc. In der'geſtalt', der'ma'ßen, ſol'cherma'ßen, the stress is due to § 360, 6. For all(e)weil(e) cf. § 335 N 2.

> Note. Here, as elsewhere (§§ 322, 1, 327, 353 R, 358 R), the South favors the decrescendo stress, some speakers allowing the crescendo stress only in einigermaßen, einſtweilen, dieweil, and derweilen, § 275, 3 *b*. Cf. § 360, 5.

Adverb Preceded by a Modifier

350. So'bald', viel'leicht', viel'mehr', stress the second member according to § 289, and all'zubald' -groß' &c. may do so, but usually suffer transferrence of stress (§ 360, 6): all'zubald' &c.; etwa accommodates itself to the rhythm of

---

* ein'mal' 'once' = 'one time' (but often ein'mal' before a pause, § 360, 8), or 'anyway'; and ein'mal' or 'mal 'once' in commands, etc., and when = 'some time or other'; in noch einmal ſo groß, etc., either syllable may have the stress.

the sentence, § 274, 2; e'benſo', gleich'viel' =wohl' have established the chief stress on the first member (§ 360, 1), but the two latter may stress the second member according to § 360, 8; for alſo see § 360, 3 R.

Adverb Followed by a Modifier

351. According to § 287: bald'mög'lichſt, da'= hier'= and wo'ſelbſt'.

Substantive and Dependent Word

352. According to § 287: zeit'le'bens.

Preposition and Noun

353. The stress is usually on the last member according to § 292, 3*a*: abhanden, anheim, anſtatt, beiſeite =zeiten, bis=weilen, empor, fürwahr, infolge, inmitten, ungefähr (un= < ohne), with =s= = das: insbeſondere =gemein =geſamt, nachgerade, unterwegs, überhaupt, vorhanden, and, with the article, vorderhand, zunächſt =vörderſt =erſt =wege =zeiten. For hin'terrücks', ü'bermor'gen, vor'geſ'tern, see § 360, 1 and 2; bei'na'h(e), un'gefähr', ü'berall' for the more usual bei'na'he, etc., are due to displacement of stress, § 360, 6. Fürlieb or vorlieb, occurring only with nehmen, is usually stressed on the last syllable, but also, especially the form vorlieb, on the first, the word being regarded as a noun, § 344 R.

Remark. The South favors the decrescendo stress (cf. § 349 N), for example, in nach'gera'de, vor'derhand', bei'na'he.

Preposition and Pronoun

354. According to § 292, 3*a*: indem', indeſ'ſen, zudem', an'= durch'= mit'= von'= ü'ber= un'tereinan'der. In some of these conglomerates the stress, while nominally on the last member, may fall on the first: in vor= nach= ſeitdem (but as a conjunction only ſeit'dem') according to § 360, 2; in außer=

dem trotzdem, ohnedies überdies, because of displacement of stress, § 360, 6.

Substantive Followed by Adverb or Preposition

355. The stress falls on the second member according to § 284: bergauf -ab, ſtroman -auf(wärts) -ab(wärts), jahraus -ein, &c. We might expect stress on the first member according to § 297, but even then it would be shifted to the second according to § 360, 2. For zwei'felsoh'ne see § 277, 2, also zwei'felso'hne in the South.

Pronoun Followed by Adverb

356. According to § 284: al'leſamt' 'all together', but also al'leſamt' like all'zugleich', all'zumal' 'all at once', which are due to displacement of stress, § 360, 6.

Pronoun Followed by Preposition

357. Always wes'halb', wes'we'gen according to § 301, unless changed according to § 360, 1, cf. § 302, 3. In the other conglomerates of this class usage varies, some speakers always stressing the pronoun, others allowing the strength of the demonstrative idea (§ 360, 3 & R) or the force of the possessive (§ 360, 1 and 2) or the rhythm of the sentence (§ 274) to determine the stress: deshalb -wegen, deſ'ſen-un'geachtet' (only rarely deſ'ſenun'geach'tet, § 360, 8), demgemäß -nach -nächſt -zufolge, meinet- deinethalben -wegen. But after the weak um (§ 278) the pronoun is heavily stressed, so always in um mei'netwil'len etc. Cf. also § 290, 3 R.

Particles Juxtaposed

358. *a*) In accordance with § 280, 2, we expect crescendo stress, and this is the more common: geradeaus, gegenüber, mittendrinn, hintennach, mitunter, obenauf, untenan, vorbei, voraus (but in im voraus the stress very commonly falls on the

first member, § 344 R), voran 'on ahead' (but stressed vor= may be prefixed to a verb compounded with an=: vor'an'=deu'ten =zei'gen &c., like vor'ar'bei'ten, § 364), fürbaß (also für'baß', especially before reiten &c., § 360, 8), so too links= rechts= rings= and wiederum, but the first two often stress the first syllable according to § 360, 2, and ringsum according to § 360, 6; nunmehr, obgleich obſchon obwohl, wenngleich, wiewohl, but gleich'wohl', den'noch' according to § 360, 6. For auf'= aus'= ein'wärts', je'= nie'mals', &c., cf. § 360, 2 and 4; for heut'zuta'ge, § 360, 2; for da'= e'he= noch'mals' &c., 360, 4, but nie= nochmals may stress the second member according to § 360, 8.

b) Hier= and da(r)= may be strong or weak and thus stressed or not stressed, see § 360, 3 & R: hieran =mit etc., daran =auf, danach =mit (as conjunction only damit'), &c.

c) When the first member is a weak demonstrative, her= hin= ſo= (§ 292, 1) or the interrogative wo(r)= (§ 292, 2), the stress usually falls on the second member: heraus =ein =nach =vor, hinauf =unter, ſofort =gleich =mit, wobei =her =rüber (but see also § 360, 1, § 302, 2).

d) When =her =hin follow, the stress is usually on the second member, but see § 360, 1, 2, 8 and, for the first three, § 360, 5: nachher, vorher =hin, hinter= nebenher, dort= weithin. Regularly bis'= ein'= ſeit'= um'her', um'hin'; but usually fünf'tig= lang'e= ſchlecht'= ſpä'terhin'. For da= woher =hin &c. see above.

Remark. In the South (cf. § 349 N), may be heard not only für'baß but also nun'mehr, ſo'gleich, bis'her, ſeit'her; still even there usually ſofort', einher'.

Interjections

359. Most interjections have the chief stress on the second member according to § 277 *b* & R, though some, like herr'jē' < Herr Jeſus (§ 287), would have it there any way. Wohl'an' =auf', (h)a'ha', ei'ei', juch'hē', potz'tau'ſend, but

hol'lă' (also hol'lā') and hē'dă (in which he is the real exclamation and da a weak demonstrative, § 299, 2). So too ja'ja' 'oh yes', du'du', a mild reproof, na'nu' 'that's going too far', na'na' 'stop!' to a child.

Remark. Similarly, when names are used as calls, the last syllable usually has most stress and pitch, while its vowel or sonorous consonant is prolonged: Agnēēēs!, Ferdinannnd!

360. 1) The stress of some of the words in §§ 349 &c. may be changed if a particular part of the word becomes the psychological predicate, cf. §§ 290, 3, 273 R; so al'lent-hal'ben, al'lerwe'gen, dum'merwei'se, &c. In some cases, the changed stress from being usual has become general: der'-zeit', § 349, e'benso', § 350, hin'terrücks', § 353 &c.

2) Such a change is common in the case of contrast, § 273 R: her'ein' nicht hin'ein' for the usual herein' etc. And when the contrasted forms are more usual than the uncontrasted forms, their accentuation may become established as the regular one: au'ßerhalb' in'nerhalb', vor'wärts' rück'wärts', ei'nerseits' an'derseits', vor'ges'tern and ü'ber-mor'gen (contrasted with gestern and morgen), vor'mittag(s)' nach'mittag(s)', heut'zuta'ge.

3) So particularly with demonstrative and possessive compounds: mei'nethal'ben, dei'netwe'gen, sei'nerseits', der'-zeit', dies'seits'. See also 4 below.

Remark. Many demonstrative compounds vary in stress according as the force of the demonstrative is strong or not (§ 299, 2), in other words, whether it is translated by 'that' or 'this' or by 'the' or 'it': da'hin 'to that place', emphatic 'there', dahin' 'to the place', 'to it', weak 'there', 'along', 'gone'; da'mit 'with that', damit' 'with it', 'in order that'; so da'raus' and daraus', and also' emphatic 'thus' or 'so', al'so 'consequently', 'and so'. Sometimes usage makes general one or the other of these forms (so usually des'-we'gen), and a different one in one part of the country from that in another, cf. 5 below.

4) If an element appears frequently as the second part of compound particles, whose first element is usually stressed (1, 2, &c. above), it gradually falls into the category of suffixes and is not stressed in new compounds, so particularly =mals, =wärts, =weis, =wegen, =halben, and others in 1 and 2 above.

5) As to a large number of compound particles, usage is divided. Thus North Germans say vor'her =hin and nach'her only in contrast, whereas many Middle and South Germans always stress the words in this way, unless for 8 below. In general, North Germans incline toward crescendo stress, § 275, 3 *b*, and South Germans toward decrescendo, §§ 349 N, 353 R, 358 R.

6) Occasionally transferrence of stress (§ 303), more often displacement of stress (§ 305 and N 1), may occur: nim'mermehr', au'ßer= trotz'dem', bei'na'h(e), oh'ne= ü'berdies' =all', wie'derum', for the usual nim'mermehr' etc.; similarly when entweder is heavily stressed (§ 294), the stress generally falls on the first syllable, otherwise often on the second. This stress has now become established in den'noch, der'ge=ſtalt', der'= ſol'cherma'ßen, gleich'wohl', all'zugleich' =mal' (see § 356), and is very common in all'zubald' etc. (§ 350). Cf. also § 305 N 2.

7) The common rule, that compound particles stress the second member, will, in spite of the numerous exceptions, be found to be generally true. This is due (1) to the fact that this is in many cases the logical stress, and (2) to the crescendo stress of Modern German (§ 275, 3).

8) With regard to many compound particles the usage of the same individual varies according as the word stands before a pause or before a heavily stressed word (§§ 277 R, 278, 1 *a*): Wie häufig haben Sie es gethan? Zwei'mal' (though, of course, it might be Zwei'mal' according to § 360, 1). But Ich hab' es zwei'mal' weg'genom'men. Das iſt

al'lerdings' wahr', but Al'lerdings'! (§ 349). As one or the other of these forms becomes general, diversity of usage arises, cf. 5 above.

(*b*) Derivatives of Conglomerates

361. Derivatives generally retain the stress of the words they are derived from: an'geſichts', ab'ſeits' (but also ab'ſeits', § 360, 7), ſonn'tags', durch'ge'hends (before a pause also durch'ge'hends, § 360, 8), zu'ſe'hends, gemäß'. Cf. also compound adjectives used as adverbs (some being more common as adverbs than as adjectives, § 324), and adverbial accusatives of compound nouns, like those in weiſe (aus'nahms-wei'ſe, hau'ſenwei'ſe, etc.), but cf. also the conglomerates in weiſe, § 349. See also § 347 R.

II. SECONDARY AND WEAK STRESS

Remark. Secondary and weak stress have, of necessity, received not a little consideration in the preceding pages; a few general statements will therefore suffice here. Cf. "Stress, secondary" in the Index.

a) *Native Words*

362. In compound nouns a secondary stress falls upon that syllable of the second member which would have the chief stress were it the first member: Haus'frau', Haus'ord'-nung, Guts'beſitz'er, Berg'partie', An'zug', un'terir'diſch, vier'-eck'ig, zwei'glie'drig, Gän'ſefett'. But the secondary stress becomes weak when the compound word becomes part of a new compound: Gän'ſefett'brot', Haus'an'zug'. In this way: —

1) In a compound consisting of *compound* + *simple*, we have decrescendo and then crescendo stress: Hoch'zeits'kleid', Stra'ßenbahn'wa'gen.

2) In a compound consisting of *simple* + *compound*, we have constantly decrescendo stress: Haus'got'tesdienſt', Lun'genſchwind'ſucht'. But see § 363.

3) In a compound consisting of *compound* + *compound*, we have decrescendo, crescendo, and then decrescendo again: Ei'ſenbahn'fahr'kar'te, Hoch'zeits'an'zug'.

363. But in accordance with the prevailing rhythm of the language (§ 274), a series of declining stresses, like that in § 362, 2, is apt to break up into a succession of alternately heavy and light syllables like those in § 362, 1 and 3; unless weak syllables already separate the heavy stresses, as in Lun'genſchwind'ſucht'.

364. Thus ' ' ' may become: —

1) ' ' '. (*a*) Chiefly in substantives: Alt'hoch'deutſch', Geld'an'wei'ſung, Hand'= Nacht'ar'beit',* Steu'erein'neh'mer, un'an'genehm', un'an'ſtän'dig, un'voll'ſtän'dig, un'vor'ſich'tig, Ur'groß'va'ter, Vor'an'zei'ge, End'= Vor'ur'teil', vor'= nach'= mit'tag(s)', Welt'an'ſchau'ung, Welt'aus'ſtel'lung, Feld'mar'= ſchall' (but usually Mar'ſchall'), Groß'ſul'tan', Groß'mama'* (often even by those who stress Mama on the first syllable). See also § 365, 5.

(*b*) Also when an emphatic word precedes a compound (or other word with two stresses), especially a compound verb, § 285, 4*b*: all'zu'bald', ja' Papa'* (sometimes even if Papa alone is stressed Pa'pa), gar' nie'mand',* ganz' unnö'tig and ſehr' not'wen'dig (but usually un'nö'tig, see § 324 *b* N 2, and not'wen'dig, § 277, 2), vor'ar'bei'ten =an'= deu'ten, den Hals' ab'ſchnei'den. Some people even say es hatte ſich ein Fink' nie'dergelaſ'ſen (§ 285, 4*b*), but ein Fink' hatte ſich nie'dergelaſ'ſen.

---

* It must be understood that usage is not settled as to all of the examples given: for instance, many people still say Hand'ar'beit' and, perhaps more, Nacht'ar'beit', and many never use gar before niemand (§ 346, 3).

2) ′ ′ ′, § 277, 2, chiefly in adjectives: ur′sprüng′lich′, un′mög′lich; often Fel′dhaupt′mann′, in Austria Erz′her′zog′ (§ 330, 2), &c., §§ 324, 330, 331. Cf. also § 310, 1.

And others like them.

Similarly, 2 ′ (˘) ′ ′ (˘) may become ′ (˘) ′ ′ (˘), § 313 R 6.

365. 1) If the vowel of a native derivative syllable has not become ə or disappeared, it either has some stress or had some at the time when other vowels became ə, § 113.

2) A derivative syllable containing a diphthong, one of the back vowels a o u, or a front vowel derived by mutation (§ 120) from one of these back vowels, has secondary stress and retains it before weak syllables: lang′sām′, Klei′nōd′, Ar′mūt′, Kind′lein′, Kühn′heit′, Reich′tūm′, Reich′-tū′mer, Ein′ō′de; Hoff′nun′gen, but ——ungen′ after secondary stress following chief stress: Ab′stū′fungen′, and sometimes, especially in poetry, before a weak syllable (§§ 274, 278, 3): Hoff′nungen′ erweckt′. But see also 5 b below.

> Remark. When a prefix has, through shift (§§ 322–328, 330–331) lost the chief stress, it generally retains secondary stress, occasionally only weak stress: voll′kom′men, un′mög′-lich, all′mäch′tig, &c.

3) i: —

(*a*) Has secondary stress in miß-, -in (-innen &c.), -(l)ing, -niß (-niſſe &c.), -rich, -icht, and generally retains it before weak syllables: miß′ach′ten, Freun′din′, die Freun′din′nen der Mut′ter, Göt′ting′en, Fähn′rich′(e), Trüb′niſ′ſe (but sometimes Fähn′riche′, Trüb′niſſe′) die Thö′rich′te and ein thö′rich′ter Menſch′, but sometimes ein 'thö′richter′ Verkauf′, §§ 274, 278, 3.

(*b*) Has weak stress in -lich: ein ſchreck′lich′er Menſch′, but often ein ſchreck′licher′ Verluſt′, §§ 274, 278, 3.

(*c*) Has very weak stress in -ig, -ich, -iſch, and is apt to fall out before other weak syllables, § 201 N 4. These suffixes are on a par with syllables containing ə or ·l, ·m, ·n, ·r

(§ 187, 2 N 5), the stress falling in such a way as best fits the alternate rhythm (§ 274): mör'derisch', mürr'ischer'.

4) Stressed e is rare in suffixes: ē occurs in words ending in -selig, like trüb'sē'lig; ĕ in E'lĕnd', fau'lĕn'zen, but these are not properly suffixes. The e of a suffix usually becomes ə or disappears (§ 187, 2 & N 5), but the resulting syllable (for example, ər or ·r) may receive a weak stress if the alternate rhythm is thereby established (§§ 274, 278): För'derer', ver'gewal'tigen', and the cases in 3 above.

Remark. Long e is still preserved under secondary stress in some parts of North Germany in the ending -er, § 144 R.

5) When a derivative syllable is added to a compound or to a derivative word, it may have stronger stress than the preceding member (§ 263 N 1 b & compare § 364, 1). So (*a*) especially the heavy endings -heit, -keit: Gelehr'sam'keit', Gewiſ'senhaf'tigkeit', Gott'lo'ſigkeit', Un'e'benheit', Un'wahr'heit', Un'vorſich'tigkeit', Un'annehm'lichkeit', &c.; (*b*) -ung, frequently in Vor'rich'tung', Beo'bach'tung'en, sometimes in Mit'tei'lung'en, Vor'le'ſung'en (but usually Vor'lē'ſungen' &c.). In a few words some other suffixes, with even more uniformity, receive heavier stress than the preceding member of the compound: (*c*) -bar: un'bar'ſtell'bar', un'mit'teil'bar', un'mit'telbar' (or un'mit'telbar'); (*d*) -los: aus'ſichts'los'; (*e*) -ſam: un'mit'teil'ſam' (but also un'mit'teil'ſam'), ar'beit'ſam' (also ar'beit'ſam'); and (*f*) the lighter endings -in, -lich, -voll, &c.: Nach'barin', Auf'ſe'herin' (also Auf'ſe'herin'); hei'mat'lich' (also ' ' '), freund'ſchaft'lich' (also ' ' '); ſehn'ſuchts'voll'. (*g*) But a preceding -tüm- regularly retains the stronger stress: volks'tüm'lich'; so also a'benteu'erlich', an'fäng'lich', &c. Moreover, the chief stress often falls on the member before -lich -bar: ei'gentüm'lich', vor'treff'lich', un'heil'bar', §§ 323, 327.

b) ADOPTED WORDS

366. If more than one syllable precedes the one having the chief stress, a secondary stress generally falls upon the first syllable: Ac'cuſativ', A'kademie', A'natomie', A'müſement', A'nachronis'mus, An'tipathie', aſ'ſimilie'ren, and so Aſ'ſimilation', Bi'ographie', che'valereſt', e'mancipie'ren, En'gagement', Or'thographie', Phi'loſophie', E'lektricität'; but see N 2.

Note 1. It will thus be found that the secondary stress often rests upon a syllable on which an English-speaking person would not expect it: A'litteration', Cer'tifikat', Ge'ographie', Hy'potenu'ſe, Re'konva'leſcent'.

Remark. As the stress on a title is secondary to that on a following name (§ 287 & N), it may shift to the first syllable: Profeſ'ſor Brau'ne, sometimes, when the title is hurried over, Pro'feſſor Brau'ne (with ' ˘ ˘ ' ˘, just as in Hy'potenu'ſe above). Cf. § 313 R *b*.

Note 2. In a few words there is a tendency (apparently a popular, not a learned one) to shift the secondary stress to the second syllable if that is a heavy syllable, § 277, 2: Authen'ticität', Elek'tricität', Elaſ'ticität'; similarly Accu'ſativ', though the second syllable is hardly heavier than the first. The tendency is most pronounced in French words like Avan'cement', Amen'dement', Arran'gement', even'tuell', sometimes Amü'ſement', § 366.

Remark. When the chief stress has passed from the last to the first syllable (§§ 313 *b*, 316), the last generally retains secondary stress, always if a weak syllable intervenes, § 263 N 1 *b*.

367. In polysyllables, still weaker stresses (*a*) usually arrange themselves according to the alternate rhythm (see § 274): ac'climă'tiſie'ren, E'tymŏ'logie', in'tellek'tuell', E'tabliſ'ſement', Su'perin'tendent' (but see § 114); but (*b*) sometimes the second syllable gets the weak stress when the rhythm would require it on the third: Aſ'ſi'milation' and usually En'cy'klopädie'.

Remarks. (*a*) If but two syllables precede the heavily stressed one, the secondary stress on the first syllable, though often quite weak, is so regular that it need not be marked: abſorbie'ren, Telegraph', Stuccatur'. (*b*) Such stress as falls upon a syllable next to one having a heavier, but not the chief stress (for example, that on =part= =cham= =mat= in Ap'partement', an'tichambrie'ren, Kon'firmation') need not be marked except when a learner might be tempted to misplace it, cf. those in § 367 *b*. (*c*) Nor is it often necessary to mark the weak stress that falls upon a long final vowel, § 144 N 4 *b*. See also § 263 N 1 *c*.

Type-setting begun, May, 1894.
Electrotyping finished, Jan., 1896.
Printing begun, April, 1897.

ANNOUNCEMENT

OF

PART II

PART I. of this work, completed something over a year ago, has been held back in order that it might be published together with Part II., containing a Word-List and a complete Index. As, however, the preparation of the Word-List requires more time than was anticipated, it has seemed best to adopt the suggestion of various scholars and teachers and publish Part I. now. The completion of Part II. is being hastened as rapidly as the peculiar requirements of its preparation will permit. It is the aim of the author not only to indicate the usage of the stage and of North Germany, but also to point out diverse usage in the Midland and the South and, so far as practicable, to designate the extent of each usage. In this he has not depended alone upon the statements of books and upon his own studies in this field, but has also secured the coöperation of German scholars and teachers representing all parts of the German-speaking territory. With some of these the manuscript is carefully gone over; the others read and criticise the galley proofs. For such generous aid acknowledgment is particularly due to the following: —

For North Germany: Dr. Bierwirth and Dr. Poll of Harvard University, Dr. Kissling and Dr. Thoms of the *Gymnasium* at Bremen, Mr. Tobias Diekhoff, Dr. Guthe, and Dr. Mensel of the University of Michigan, Miss Marie Apel of Göttingen, Dr. Arnold Genthe of San Francisco, Dr. Siegfried Genthe of Hamburg, Miss Ida Guthe of Chicago, Prof. Hoops of the University of Heidelberg, Prof. Karsten of the University of Indiana, Mr. K. G. H. Th. Reiche of the Public Schools of Braunschweig, Dr. Ernst Riess of New York City, Mr. Georg Ristow, *cand. phil.*, of the University of Berlin, Prof. Schmidt-Wartenberg of the University of Chicago, Prof. Voss of the University of Wisconsin.

For Middle Germany: Dr. Blau of Bryn Mawr College, Mr. Henry L. Coar and Prof. Ziwet of the University of Michigan, Prof. Einenkel of the University of Münster, Miss Camilla Häntzsche of Ann Arbor, Prof. Hochdörfer of Wittenberg College, Dr. Jardon of the *Gymnasium* at Düren, Mr. Reinhold Knauth of Madison, Wis., Mr. Arnold Küster, *cand. phil.*, of the University of Strassburg, Mr. Paul Löwe, *cand. phil.*, and Mr. L. Mack, *cand. phil.*, of the University of Marburg, Dr. Pabst of the *Gymnasium* at Bremen, Prof. Schilling of Harvard University, and Prof. Wahl of Williams College.

For South Germany, Austria, and Switzerland: Prof. Bopp of the *Realschule* at Tübingen, Prof. Heller of Washington University, Prof. Hoffmann-Krayer of the University of Zürich, Principal Huber of the German Department of the Saginaw WS. Public Schools, Dr. Wolfgang Keller of the University of Prague, Prof. Lang of Yale University, Mr. Otto Lessing and Mr. E. C. Roedder of the University of Michigan, Prof. Luick of the University of Graz, Mr. C. F. Weiser of the Detroit High School, and Prof. Werner of the *Realgymnasium* at Karlsruhe.

The character of the Word-List may best be judged by the following sample pages.

Book iiij

WORD-LIST AND INDEX

WORD-LIST AND INDEX

368. The basis of this Word-List is the list of words in the "Regeln und Wörterverzeichnis für die deutsche Rechtschreibung zum Gebrauch in den preußischen Schulen", but it will be observed that this number has been many times increased by the incorporation of difficult words from the other official spellers and from various sources. A large number of proper names have been introduced — not necessarily the most important, but such as presented to the learner some element of uncertainty. It also seemed best to incorporate the forms of the strong and the irregular verbs.

Where more than one pronunciation is given, the more usual is placed first. Where, however, the difference is one of conservatism (or of stage or school usage) as contrasted with colloquial ease of utterance, the former precedes. Marks of parenthesis are used to enclose sounds that may as well be omitted, whether their retention be a matter of individual or local usage or of sentence rhythm, or the passport of one who would be counted a "correct" speaker. When the difference between the two pronunciations given is distinctly a geographical one, the fact is stated or reference is made to an explanatory paragraph. Of course, this is all approximate only. To draw definite lines is often impossible, and to multiply minute local differences would defeat our purpose. For *ən* or *·n* (p 128 N 5) &c, only *·n* is used; *ë* is printed for ancient *ë* etc and before r, though *ē* is generally heard on the stage and in many parts of the country (p xxvi, 125 N 2); the vowel of an open unstressed or weakly stressed syllable (other than final) is printed in

---

Besides the books mentioned p 18 ff, much use has been made of Flügel's, Grimm's, Heyne's, Kluge's, Paul's, Sanders', Thieme-Preusser's, and Weigand's dictionaries, of Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon, and of Vietor's "Beiträge zur Statistik der Aussprache des Schriftdeutschen" in *Phonetische Studien* and of his "Die Aussprache des Schriftdeutschen."

Roman type to indicate the short narrow sound, though many pronounce it wide and short, while actors, singers, and public speakers often give it the long narrow sound (§ 144 N 2 *b*, 135 end, 243 *a*); consonants are printed in Roman type to indicate that they are partially or locally unvoiced (§ 150 N 2, 3, 223 N 3); the difference in usage as to r (§ 221) is not expressed; w is generally transcribed *v*, but β after z, ſch, &c (§ 239), as is also the u of qu (§ 220); y is rendered by both *i* and *ü*, the *ü* being placed first as being the school usage, except in those words where it is but rarely heard (§ 241). Where more definite information is desired as to diversity of usage in the pronunciation of any particular letter, reference must always be made to the letter itself in its own place in the Word-List.

Words having only one vowel capable of chief stress need no mark of stress; thus, Liebe *lībə*, geſtritten *gəſtrĭt·n*; for no one would be tempted to stress *ə* or *·n*.

Occasionally the A and Sw spellings are given, but in general no attempt is made to represent the usage of A and Sw, because this so often differs decidedly in principle from that of the German books.

trasted with Mittelfränkiſch etc. § 328.

Altgriechenland pn *'ălt'grī'ĥ·nlănt'* p 243, also *_'_'_ _'* p 189 *b*.

althochdeutſch *'ălt'hōχ'doɨtſ'*, more often *_'_'_'* § 328, 364.

altindiſch N & MG *'ălt''ĭn'dĭſ*, also *_'_'_* attrib. § 278, 1 *a*, and in contrast with indiſch § 328; usually *_'_'_* in SG, p 189 *b*.

altjüngferlich *'ălt'jŭŋ'f·rlĭĥ'* § 344, more often *m'f* § 209 N 2; also *ŭ*, and, esp. SG, *_'_'_ _'* p 189 *b*.

altmodiſch *'ălt'mō'dĭſ*.

altnordiſch N & MG *'ălt'nŏr'dĭſ*, also *_'_'_* attrib. § 278, 1 *a*, and in contrast with nordiſch § 328; usually *_'_'_* in SG, p 189 *b*.

Altona pn *'ăl'tonā*.

altſächſiſch N & MG *'ălt'zĕk'sĭſ*, also *_'_'_* attrib. § 278, 1 *a*, and in contrast with ſächſiſch § 328; usually *_' _'_* in SG, p 189 *b*.

Altſtadt *'ălt'ſtăt'* p 242 *c*.

altteſtamentlich N & MG *'ălt'tĕſtă-ment'lĭĥ* (except in contrast, p 186 R), SG *_'_ _ _'_* § 333, 2, 344.

Alvensleben pn *'ăl'v·nslē'b·n* or *(b·)m* p 156 [e < MHG ë].

Altvordern *'ălt'fŏr'd·rn*.

Alt(er)weiberſommer *'ălt'(·r)vaɨ'-b·rzŏ'm·r* § 344.

Alwin pn *'ăl'vīn'* p 136 N 5.

Alxinger pn *'ălk'sĭŋ'·r*

am (')*ăm* p 97 ft. am beſten p 47, 5. am Ende, when = 'possibly', usually sounded *'ă-mĕn'də* p 69 N 1 *b*.

Amalgam *'ămălgām'*

Amalie pn *'ămā'ljə* p 136, in the South also *ă'mā'lə*.

Amazone *'ămătsō'nə* p 225.

Amberg pn *'ăm'bĕrk'* or *-ĥ* § 345.

Ambition *'ăm'bĭtsjōn'*.

ambitiös *'ăm'bĭtsjōs'*.

Amboß N & MG *'ăm'bŏs*, SG *-ō-* § 142, p 143; pl. *=oſſe* (P & Sx) N & MG *-ösə*, *=oße* (W, Bd) SG *-ōsə*.

Ambros pn *'ăm'brōs'*.

Ambroſia *'ămbrō'zjā*.

Ambroſius pn *'ămbrō'zjŭs*.

Ameiſe *'ā'maɨ'zə*, rarely *'āmaɨ'zə* p 217, 3.

Amen *'ā'm·n*, rarely *'ā'mĕn'* p 128 R.

Amendement *'ă'măŋd·măŋ'* or *_ _'_ _'* p 263 N 2, SWG *_ _'_ _'* p 263 N 3 Addenda.

Amerika pn *'ămē'rikā* (English *(')vměr'ĭkv*, less often *-ər'-*).

American intonation, p 172 R.

" stress, cf Stress.

" use of glottal stop, p 104 R.

Amethyſt *'ămetŭſt'*, occasionally *ŭ* § 241.

Ammoniak *'ă'monjăk'* or *'ămō'njăk*, SG also *ă'monjăk'*.

Amneſtie *'ămnĕſtī'*.

amortiſieren *'ă'mŏrtizī'r·n* but cf *=ieren*.

Amphibie *'ămfī'bjə* or *-jə*.

Amphibium *'ămfī'bjŭm* or *-jŭm*.

Amphibrach *'ăm'fibrăχ'*, more commonly Amphibrachys *'ăm-fĭ'brăχŭs'*.

as adv., im beſonder(e)n. Cf insbeſondere.

beſonn(en), beſönne, cf ſinnen.

beſprechen *bəſprĕx·n* or *·ŋ* § 225, cf ſprechen.

beſſer *bĕs·r*, ſich eines Beſſer(e)n beſinnen, but es iſt das beſſere, daß (= beſſer, daß), cf daß.

beſtätigen *bəſtɛ̄'tĭ·n* or *·ŋ*.

beſte *bĕstə* p 128*a* (cf daß). aufs beſte p 47, 5, das beſte p 48, der erſte beſte. beſten *bĕst·n*. am or zum beſten geben, haben, kehren, lenken, ſein, wenden (W has B- with wenden) p 47, 5, 48, but zum allgemeinen Beſten p 47, 5, zum B- der Armen, er hat ſein Beſtes gethan.

Beſtie *bĕstjə* p 223.

beſtmöglich *bĕſt'mō̄k'lĭx* § 327, 1; but in most of N & MG *ſ'l*, and in SG often *'gl*, § 91, 3*b*.

beteiligen *bətaɪ̯'lĭj·n* or *·ŋ*.

beten *bēt·n* [e < MHG ë].

beteuern *bətoɪ̯·rn*.

bethätigen *bətɛ̄'tĭj·n* or *·ŋ*.

Bethlehem pn *bē'tləhĕm'* also *bē* and *ēm*.

betonen *bətō·n·n*.

Betonie *bətō'njə*.

Betracht *bətrăχt*, in B- ziehen.

betreffs *bətrĕfs*, in betreff (so P, M, & Sx; W: in B-; Bd: inbetreff), but in dem Betreff.

betrog(en), betröge, betrügen, cf trügen.

Betrübnis *bətrȳ̆p'nĭs*, sometimes *ȳ̆'b*, § 91, 3*b*.

Bett *bĕt*. Cf Beet.

Bettag *bĕt'tāk'* or *-χ'*, NG also *ă* [e < MHG ë].

Bettlaken *bĕt'lɛ̄'k·n* or *·ŋ*.

bettelarm *bĕt·l(')ărm*, for stress cf § 329.

Bettler *bĕtl·r* § 91, 3; still sometimes *-ēr'* in the NW, p 97 R.

Betttuch or Bettuch (P, Sx, M & W: tt; Bv, Bd & A: t; Sw: Bett-Tuch; cf p 37 R) *bĕt'tū̆χ'* or *bĕ'tū̆χ'* p 105.

Betty pn *bĕ'tī* (in Eng. *-ɪ*).

beugen *boɪ̯g·n* or *j* and *·ŋ*.

Beule *boɪ̯lə*.

beut(ſt), cf bieten.

bewahren *bəvā'r·n* or *-(·)rn* 'preserve', bewähren *-ɛ̄-* 'aver', cf also bewehren.

bewandt *bəvănt*, Bewandtnis *-nĭs*.

bewegen, orig st V, then st IV (rarely VI), then st II. Still regularly so when = 'induce, prevail upon'. **bewegen** *bəvēg·n* [e < MHG ę] or *j* and *·ŋ*, **bewog** *bəvōk* or *χ* (MHG bewāg), **bewogen** *bəvōg·n* or *γ* and *·ŋ* († ē, ā); pret. subj. bewöge; but wk in 2d & 3d pres. ind. & imp. (du bewegſt *-kst* or *-fst*, bewege) and in all forms when = 'move, touch, excite'; but occasional interchange of wk and st forms occurs. Cf wägen.

bewehren *bəvër·n* [e < MHG ę] or *-(·)rn* 'to arm'; cf bewähren.

beweiſen *bəvaɪ̯z·n*, cf weiſen.

bewillkomm(n)en (so Sw; P favors mmn, W favors mm; Bd & M give only mmn, Bv only mm) *bəvĭl'kŏm'(n)·n*. The (*n*) is rarely heard before a consonant.

Bewirtung *bəvĭr'tŭŋ*, NG also *ŋk*.

bewog(en), bewöge, cf bewegen.

Bonaparte pn *bo'năpăr'tə*, in SG also *bō'năpăr'tə*.

Bonbon *bŏŋ'bŏŋ'* p 140 R, in SG also *_'_'* p 220, 225.

Bonifaciuš pn *bo'nifā'tsjŭs*, or Bonifaz *bo'nifāts'*.

Boot § 43 *bōt* p 142, pl Boote *bōtə* or Böte *bō̈tə* (W & Sw only Boote).

Böotien pn *bȫō'tsj·n* § 232.

Bord *bŏrt* 'edge', an Bord 'on board' p 143, in NG also *ō*. Cf Bort.

Börde *bö̆rdə* 'fertile plain'.

Börding *bö̆r'dĭŋ(k)* p 141 N 3, 145 'lighter'.

Boreaš pn *bō'reăs*, less often, with Greek stress, *borē'ăs*.

borgen *bŏrg·n* or *j* and *·ŋ* p 197, 1 & 2.

-born, stress of names in, p 240.

Börš 'perch' p 145, sometimes *ŏ̈*, a NG form of Barſch. Cf Börſe.

Borsdorfer pn *bōrs'dŏr'fr* p 142 N 4, but at a distance from Borsdorf usually *ŏ*, p 240, 2.

Börſe 'exchange' *bö̆rzə* or *ŏ̈*, p 145, § 140. Cf Börš.

borſt, börſte, cf berſten.

Bört p 143 'shelf'. Cf Bücherbort and Bord.

Bö̆rt 'turn'.

Borte *bŏrtə* 'border', 'edge'.

bö̆š or böſe *bö̆zə*, böſer *bö̆z·r*, böſeſt § 223.

böšartig *bö̆š'(')ār'tĭ̈ç* § 170, 222.

böſchen *bö̆f·n*, in MG also *ŏ̈* p 145, so Böſchung *-ŭŋ*, NG also *ŋk*.

Böſewicht *bö̆'zəvĭ̈çt'* § 186.

Böš'hăft' p 34 *c*, Boßheit *bōs'haɣ̆t'*.

Boskett *bŏs'kĕt'*.

boſſeln *bŏs·ln*, boſſieren *bŏsī'r·n* but cf -ieren.

1. Böt 'summons', 'bid', NG also *ŏ̈*.

2. bot, böte, cf bieten.

Botanik *botā'nĭk*.

Bötchen § 43 *bö̆tç·n*.

Böttcher *bö̆tç·r*, = Büttner.

Böttger pn *bö̆tç·r*, less often *g*.

Bottich *bŏ'tĭç*.

Boudoir *budo̯ār'* p 225, also *bŭ'doār* in SG.

Bouillon *bŭljŏŋ'* p 139 N 2, 140 R; in SG also *_'_*.

Boulevard *bul(ə)vār'*, also *bū'lɐvār*, rarely *rt*.

Bouquet (Sx allows Bukett) p 38, 3, 9, 40, *bukĕt'* § 220 N, p 94 *c*, 126, SG *bukē'* or *bu'ke* § 231 N 3; pl Bouquetš *-s* (Bouquette, though not in the official spellers, is also in use).

Bourbon pn *bŭrbŏŋ'*, p 140 R, § 214, also *_'_'*; pl Bourbonen *bŭrbō'n·n*.

Bouteille *butĕl'jə*, also *-ĕl'* and *-ĕj'*.

Boutike, cf Butike.

Bovenden pn, p 32, *bō'f·nd·n* § 238, or *v*.

Boviſt, cf Boviſt.

Bowle § 45 *bōlə* 'punch' § 215. Cf Bohle.

boxen p 39 *bŏks·n*.

Boy, cf Boi.

1. brach adj. *brāχ*, sometimes *ă*, p 116 N 3. So brach liegen (Sx & Bd) or brachliegen (P).

2. brach, bräche, cf brechen.

Brache *brāχə*, sometimes *ă*.

brachte, brächte, cf bringen.

Chamisso pn *šămĭ'sō* ; still, the family and many teachers insist on *_'_ _'*.

Chamois *šă'mǫă*, also *_(_)_'*.

Champagner *šămpăn'j·r* p 134, 140 N & R.

Champignon *šăm'pĭnjŏŋ'* or *šăŋ'-* p 140 N & R.

Chance *šăŋ'sə* p 121. Cf also Schanze.

Changes in quantity, cf Quantity.
" " sounds, cf Sounds.

changieren *šăŋ3ī'r·n*, but cf -ieren.

Chaos *kā'ŏs* p 226, 92, 94 R, also *χ* and *ñ* § 181, 1*b* & R. chaotisch *kăō'tĭš* etc, M & SG also *ŏ*.

Charade or Schr- (so P; Sx prefers Sch; Bv, Bd, M & W give only Ch) *šărā'də* p 221.

Charakter p 38, 8, *kărăk'tr* p 123, pl -ere *-ē'rə* ; cha'rakteristisch *šă'răkterĭs'tĭš*.

Chares pn *ñā'rĕs*, also *k* and *χ*.

Charge *šărʒə*.

Charité *šărĭtē'*.

Charivari *šărĭvā'rī*, also *_'_ _'_* and *vă*.

Charlatan *šär'lătăn'* p 140 N, 221, also *ān'* and *ăŋ'*.

charmant or schr- (so Sx; Bd, P, M, & W give only ch) *šărmănt'*.

Charon pn *ñā'rŏn'*, *also* *χ* and *k* p 123 R; SG also *ō*.

Chäronea pn *ñĕronē'ă* or *ñă̄-*.

Charpie (Sx allows Schr-also) *šărpī'*.

Charta *kăr'tă*, also *ñ*.

chartern *tšărtrn*.

Charybdis *ñărŭp'dĭs* or *k-*, also *χ* and *b*, p 123 R.

Chauker pn *ñaᵫk·r* or *χ-*, also *k-*.

Chaussee p 39, 13 *šōsē'* § 173 R, p 123, 3, 222; stress in sentence, p 203.

Check *šĕk* p 123, 4, also *tš*.

Chedive, cf Khedive.

Chef p 39, 13 *šĕf*, pl Chefs *šĕfs* p 95, 123, 3, 126; sometimes *ē*.

Chemie *ñemī'* p 123, § 202; Chemiker *ñē'mik·r*, SG also *k*. Cf Alchimie.

Chemisette f *šemizĕ'tə* ; also -tt nt.

Chemnitz pn *kĕm'nĭts* § 180, 1 R. At a distance also *ñ*.

-chen *-ñ·n*, rarely *-χ·n* after back vowels § 180, 1.

Cheops pn *ñē'ŏps*, SG also *k*.

Cherub *ñĕ'rŭp'*, SG also *k*, p 123; pl -s or -im.

Cherusker pn *ñerŭs'k·r*, SG also *k-*, p 123.

Chesterkäse *tšĕ'st·rkāzə*, also *š-*, p 123, 4.

chevalereск *šĕ'văl(·)rĕsk'* § 366.

Chicago pn *šĭkǭ'go*, less often *-ā-*; in Germany usually mistaught *tšĭkā'gō* p 123, 4.

Chicane or Schikane (so Bd, P, M; Sx gives Sch-t- or Ch-c-; Bv only Sch-t-; W only Ch-c-) *šĭkā'nə* p 221.

Chief stress, cf Stress.

Chiemsee pn *kīm'zē* cf p 122 R 2; at a distance also *ñ-*.

Chiffonier *šĭfŏnjē'* 'ragpicker'; Chiffoniere *šĭfŏnjē'rə* (1) '(female) ragpicker', (2) 'chiffonier'.

Chiffre *šĭf·r*.

Chignon *šĭnjŏŋ'*, or *_'_*.

Child-speech p 74, 1, 86 R, 104 R, § 267 & R, 270, p 185 top, 204, 3, § 307.

Chile or Chili pn *tšī'lē*, *-ī*, or *ñ-*, also *š*.

e Due

MAY

WITHDRAWN

Hempl. George
German orthography & phonology